DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 387 702	CE 070 122

AUTHOR	Willems, Jean-Pierre
TITLE	Vocational Education and Training in France.
INSTITUTION	European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, Berlin (Germany).
REPORT NO	ISBN-92-826-6926-2
PUB DATE	94
NOTE	134p.
AVAILABLE FROM	UNIPUB, 4611-F Assembly Drive, Lanham, MD 20706-4391 (Catalogue No. HY-75-92-954-EN-C; $19).
PUB TYPE	Reports - Descriptive (141)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Continuing Education; Developed Nations; *Educational Finance; *Educational Practices; *Educational Trends; *Education Work Relationship; Employment Practices; Foreign Countries; Government Role; *Job Training; Postsecondary Education; Secondary Education; *Vocational Education
IDENTIFIERS	*France

ABSTRACT

This monograph gives an overview of the vocational education and training system in France. It contains the following information: (1) a presentation of the administrative, demographic, and economic background in which the training system in France exists; (2) a brief historical review of the development of the training systems; (3) a presentation of the arrangements for initial training; (4) a presentation of the arrangements for continuing training; (5) an indication of where responsibilities for administering the system are located, including the influence of the social partners; (6) information on financing the system; and (7) an indication of present trends and developments. Five appendixes include the following: a list of abbreviations, an address list, a glossary of 17 terms, a bibliography containing 23 citations, and a synopsis of the main laws, regulations, and agreements on vocational training. (KC)

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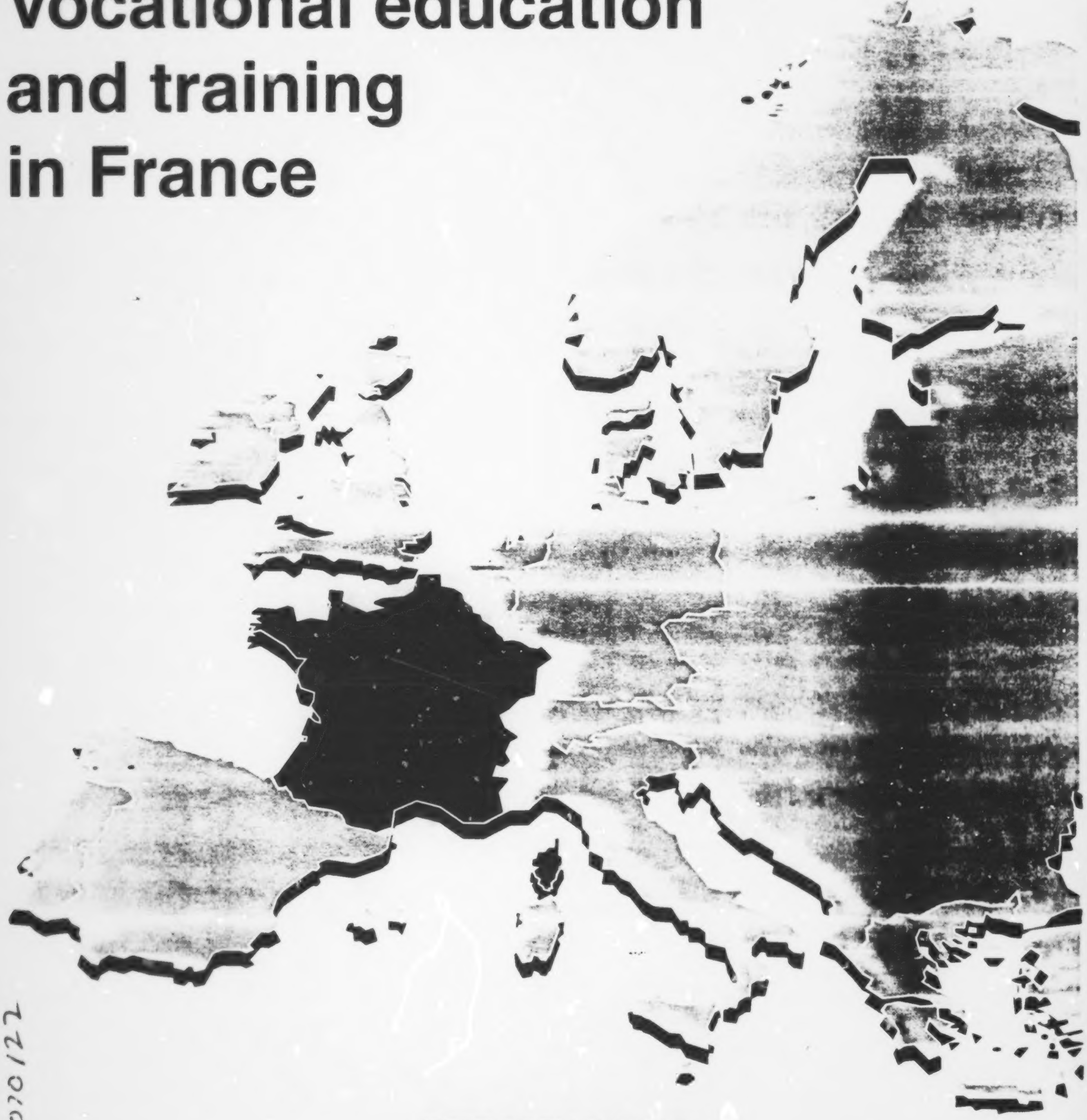
Vocational education and training in France



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CEDEFOP

Vocational education and training in France

This monograph has been prepared by:

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on behalf of
CEDEFOP — European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 1994

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First edition 1994

Published by the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training,
Jean Monnet House, Bundesallee 22, **D-10717 Berlin**
Tel.: (49-30) 88 41 20; Fax: (49-30) 88 41 22 22; Telex: 184 163 eucen d

The Centre was established by Regulation (EEC) No 337/75
of the Council of the European Communities.

Cataloguing data can be found at the end of this publication.

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1994

ISBN 92-826-6926-2

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Printed in Germany

CEDEFOP INTRODUCTION

IS THERE A SYSTEM?

Is there such a thing as a vocational training system? Strictly speaking, the answer is 'no', in that a system assumes a clear set of objectives and a logical and coherent framework for policy making and execution to achieve them. In reality, vocational training, sandwiched between the education system and the demands of the labour market, caught between the different and varying social, economic, and political priorities of political parties and the social partners, and in the conflicts between different ministries and public powers, located at national, regional and local level, does not in any of the Community Member States demonstrate the characteristics of a system.

Nevertheless, this volume and the eleven similar volumes on the other Member States constitute a third generation of CEDEFOP monographs on the training systems in the Member States. In preparing it, much has been learnt from the procedures used for, and the reaction to, the earlier monographs and the Guide to the vocational training systems, published in 1983.

CONTENT OF THE REPORTS

The present monographs have been prepared by one organization or individual in each of the Member States, following a detailed specification by CEDEFOP of the contents required. These specifications were discussed and agreed at a meeting in Berlin in May 1991.

The basic structure was designed to incorporate

(a) a presentation of the administrative, demographic, and economic background in which the training system exists;
(b) a brief historical review of the development of the training systems;
(c) a presentation of the arrangements for initial training;
(d) a presentation of the arrangements for continuing training;
(e) an indication of where responsibilities for administering the system are located, including the influence of the social partners;
(f) information on financing the system;
(g) an indication of present trends and developments, where authors were asked, in particular, to indicate how far the system has been, or would be, influenced by Community considerations such as the creation of the Single European Market, mutual recognition of qualifications, the intervention of the Structural Funds, and the Community's education and training programmes.

THE PROCESS OF PREPARATION

Authors were asked to send a copy of their draft report for comment to the members of CEDEFOP's Management Board in their country, and organizations with a major role in the training system. They were requested to incorporate the views expressed to the maximum extent possible. Whereas in general authors were asked to be descriptive and analytical, they were encouraged in the last section ((g) above) to express their own views.

Initial draft monographs on each of the Member States were delivered to CEDEFOP in the period between September 1991 and March 1992. As experience had led us to expect, the documents received varied considerably in their approach, content, and presentation. Between January and October 1992 CEDEFOP had a series of intensive meetings with each of the authors, in order to ensure that certain elements were added to the reports and that they respected specific rules with relation to presentation. A novel and very beneficial feature of these meetings was participation in many cases by the translators responsible for translating the volume concerned.

Following these meetings the authors revised their reports on the basis of what was said during the meeting, took account of comments received, and included references to recent developments in their country.

USE OF DIAGRAMS

It had been hoped that a large number of diagrams could be developed which would be common to all the monographs, and could then be used to simplify comparisons between the Member States by the reader. These could later become the basis of additional publications, such as a guide to the training systems or particular aspects of them. However, we have found that while it is relatively easy to obtain and present statistical information on the population, the employment market, and the economy, it remains difficult not only to obtain hard and comparable data on many aspects of the education and training systems of all 12 Member States, but also to present this information in a useful diagrammatic form.

WHO ARE THE USERS?

A question which came up repeatedly in the preparation of the monographs was: what is our primary user group? Our belief is that these monographs will be useful to a wide range of people active in vocational training, including policy makers, practitioners, and researchers, but also to those seeking training in another country, and needing to know the framework in which it is provided. They are therefore, in particular, geared towards the needs of those who participate, or wish to participate in any of the Community programmes involving partnerships, visits, etc. Hence the emphasis on having monographs which are not more than 100 pages in length, and which do not require reference to other documents.

LINKS WITH OTHER COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

CEDEFOP has been anxious that this work should be seen in the context of other Community activities with relation to information on the education and training systems. CEDEFOP has been glad to participate in the joint publication with EURYDICE on 'Structures of the Education and Initial Training Systems in the Member States of the European Community' available in English, French and German. The European Unit of EURYDICE, and CEDEFOP have also tried to ensure that the authors of the monographs on the training systems, and the EURYDICE units providing information for the national dossiers on the education systems, should be in contact with each other. The European Unit of EURYDICE, and CEDEFOP similarly are continuing their efforts to ensure that the products of this work should be available to a wide audience, and with this in mind are investigating possibilities of holding the information on a common automated system.

In a more general way, as indicated above, CEDEFOP considers these monographs should be useful in supporting other activities of the Community in the field of training, and through this the implementation of the new provisions, contained in articles 126 and 127 of the Maastricht Treaty.

The publication of these monographs does not mark the end of this activity. Arrangements will be made for their up-dating and their re-publication as appropriate and as resources permit. CEDEFOP would be extremely pleased to have comments on their usefulness and proposals on how they could be improved, from anybody who has occasion to use them.

Corrado Politi
Deputy Director

J. Michael Adams

F. Alan Clarke

Berlin, November 1992

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PREFACE

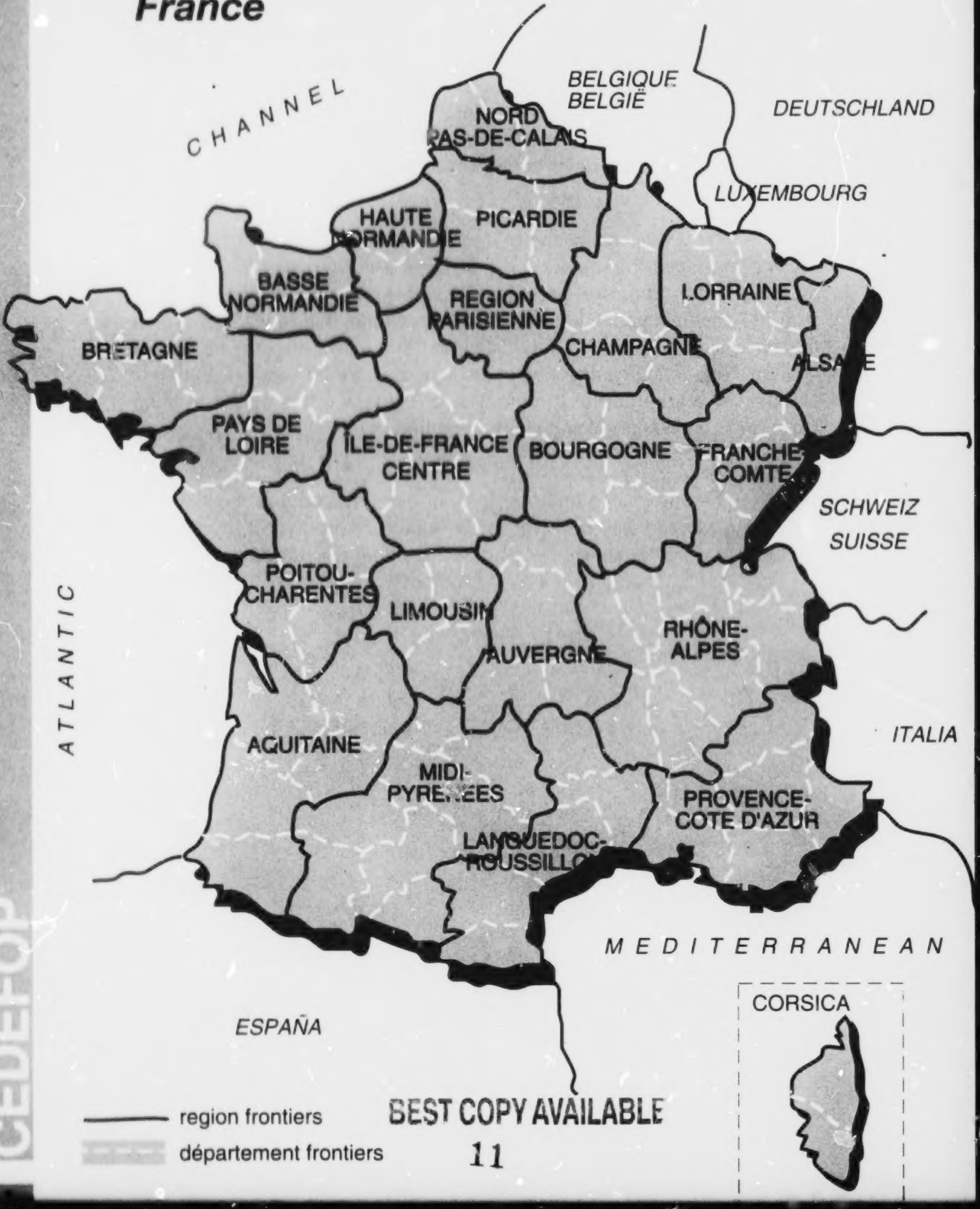
In France it is not the practice to lump together the provision for school pupils and students (initial training) and the provision for the employed or those seeking employment (continuing training) under the one heading of 'vocational training'. When the term 'formation professionnelle' is used in France, it usually refers to continuing training — a distinction that reflects the separation of the educational system from the working world. There has always been a sharp divide between the two in France, despite the development of alternance training systems and debate on the recognition of the workplace as the place of training.

This traditionally sharp divide between initial and continuing training may give the impression that there are two juxtaposed training systems rather than a single, coherent whole. With the reforms initiated over the past few years, it is reasonable to expect that in the near future the two disjointed systems may disappear and that there may be overall channels and resources defined in the light of shared objectives. With this prospect, it will be one of the greatest challenges in the 1990s to bring initial and continuing training closer together.

The abundance and originality of the provision and regulation of continuing training will, however, be a feature of the French system for some time to come, as will become clearly apparent in this monograph.

J.-P. Willems
Centre INFFO, for CEDEFOP
April 1992

The administration of mainland France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DEUTSCHLAND
LUXEMBOURG
NORD PAS-DE-CALAIS
HAUTE NORMANDIE
PICARDIE
BASSE NORMANDIE
REGION PARISIENNE
LORRAINE
BRETAGNE
CHAMPAGNE
ALSACE
PAYS DE LOIRE
ILE-DE-FRANCE CENTRE
BOURGOGNE
FRANCHE-COMTE
SCHWEIZ
SUISSE
POITOU-CHARENTES
LIMOUSIN
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ESPAÑA
region frontiers
département frontiers

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1.1. Political and administrative infrastructure

The French Republic

1.1.1.
In the French Republic — the Fifth Republic — institutions are governed by the Constitution of 4 October 1958, as amended by a referendum held in 1962 (which introduced the election of the President of the Republic).

The President is elected for seven years by direct universal suffrage. He appoints the Prime Minister and may dissolve the National Assembly. If a grave threat arises, he may exercise exceptional powers.

The government is headed by the Prime Minister and appointed by the President, based on proposals by the Premier. It decides on and administers the nation's affairs, and is answerable for its actions to the National Assembly. Within the government, the Minister for National Education is responsible for initial vocational training, while the Minister for Labour is responsible for continuing training.

Parliament is the legislative body. It consists of two chambers: the National Assembly (577 deputies elected by direct universal suffrage for a term of five years) and the Senate (321 senators elected by indirect suffrage) representing the 'collectivités territoriales' (see Annex 3). Both vote on legislation, but in the last resort the view of the National Assembly may prevail, the Assembly alone having the power to dismiss the government.

The Conseil constitutionnel (Constitutional Council) is responsible for compliance with the rules of the Constitution and for ensuring there is no conflict between legislation and the Constitution.

1.1.2.
Metropolitan France is divided into 22 regions and 96 'départements'. The territory of France also includes four départements d'outre-mer (DOM — overseas départements, which are treated as regions in terms of their responsibilities): Guadeloupe, French Guiana, Martinique and Réunion. It also has three territoires d'outre-mer (TOM — overseas territories with special status): New Caledonia, Polynesia and Wallis and Futuna. Lastly, it has two collectivités territoriales whose status is midway between that of a DOM and TOM: Mayotte and Saint-Pierre-et-Miquelon. France has close to 36 000 communes.

1.1.3.
France is a unified State. With decentralization, introduced after many long years' debate by the Law of 2 March 1982 on the rights and freedoms of decentralized territorial communities, three levels of responsibility were introduced: the commune, the département and the region. Each of these communities has corporate status and an elected executive (a municipal council, general council, and regional council, respectively).

1.1.4.
The 1982 laws on decentralization transferred many responsibilities to the municipal councils, general councils and regional councils, especially for matters more closely affecting day-to-day life. The main fields in which responsibilities were transferred were: regional and local development and town planning,

housing, transport, environment and culture, education, vocational training and social action and health.

1.1.5.
At the heart of the decentralization laws passed in 1982 and 1983 lay education and training. The laws of 2 March 1982 and 7 January 1983 laid down procedures for the transfer of part of the State's responsibilities for these to local authorities, in particular the regional councils, but the decentralization of education took a different form from that of vocational training.

The decentralization of education

1.1.6.
In education, responsibilities are broken down as follows: the State is responsible for staff, the content of education, inspection and the sanctioning of studies; the local authorities are responsible for equipping and running establishments, with départements being given responsibility for 'collèges' and regional councils for 'lycées'. Local authorities are also given the power to define training needs within the region, establish an investment programme and decide on the location of the investment projects. Lastly, local authorities are represented on the boards of lycées and collèges and on consultative bodies.

1.1.7.
Realities have overtaken the law, however, and the involvement of local authorities has in fact exceeded their statutory responsibilities as strictly laid down, especially as regards the volume of funding. For example, authorities already step in to finance the installation of higher education establishments. Such funding is often provided in conjunction with the State, which asks local authorities to make a financial contribution while reaffirming the need for higher education to remain the responsibility of the State in order to guarantee equality of treatment. Although the sharing of responsibilities in this field will not come about without debate and difficulty, its introduction seems fairly imminent.

The decentralization of vocational training

1.1.8.
The Law of 7 January 1983 gave regional councils responsibility in principle for vocational training, the State retaining responsibility only for assigning tasks to other bodies (in other words it intervenes in those sectors and on behalf of those groups specifically listed by the law). These legal principles are far from reflected in the actual provision of vocational training in France, but since State measures are on quite a different scale from regional measures, the regions are left very free to intervene in the field of vocational training.

1.1.9.
After a transitional period, in the course of which regional councils merely took over measures previously administered by the State, in particular schemes directed towards job-seekers, it became possible to establish genuine regional policies (see 2.3.62 *et seq.*).

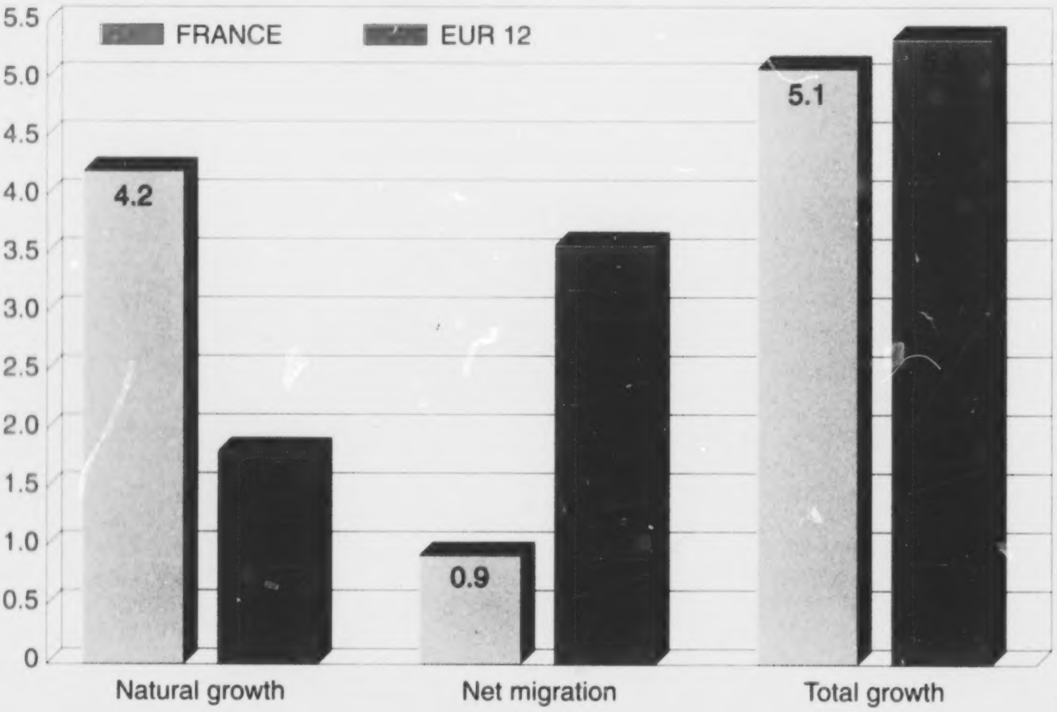
1.2. The population

Population statistics

1.2.1.
According to the March 1990 census, France's total population was 56 614 493. As of 1 January 1991, 27.4% of the population were aged under 20, 58.4% in the 20 to 64 age group and 14.2% were aged 65 and over.

1.2.2.
The age pyramid in France (see page 12) shows that in general the population is growing older. The trend is comparable with that in other EC countries: the non-renewal of generations since the mid-1970s is a phenomenon common to all its Member States. According to forecasts up to the year 2000 drawn up by INSEE (see Annex 3), this ageing of the French population should be accentuated from 2005 onwards, when the 'baby boom' generations born between 1945 and 1973 reach their 60s. By 2020 the over-60s will account for more than 28% of the population (compared with 19% in 1990). The birth rate, at 13.5‰, is still one of the highest in the European Community, only exceeded by Ireland (14.7 ‰). The maintenance of a birth rate of 1.8 children per female over the past five years, however, gives grounds for a prediction that the total population will shrink from 2020 onwards.

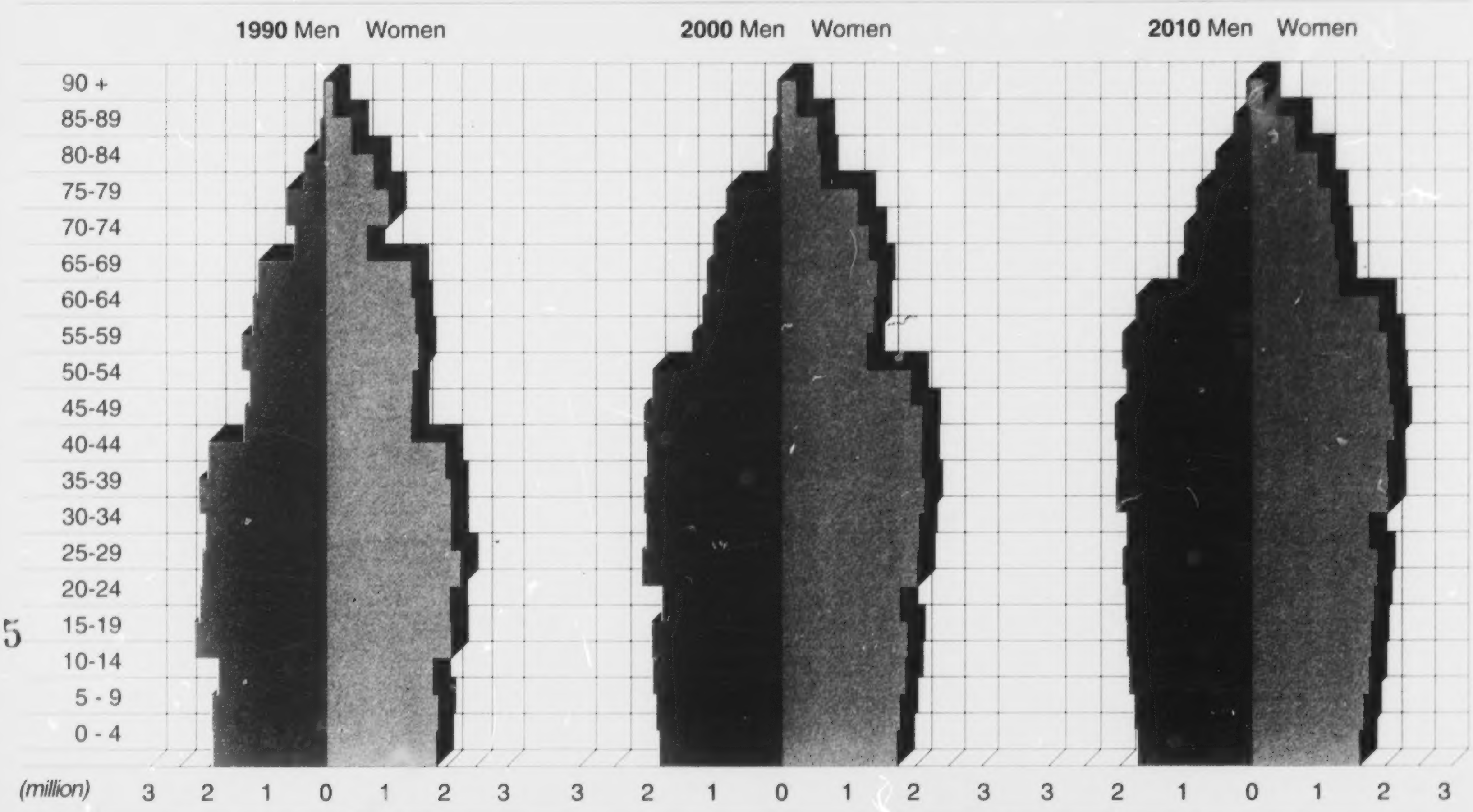
Change in population in 1989 (per 1000 population)



Source: Eurostat — *A social portrait of Europe, 1991.*

Age pyramid

Estimate as of 1 January — forecast for 2000 and 2010



Source: Eurostat — *Demographic statistics 1992.*

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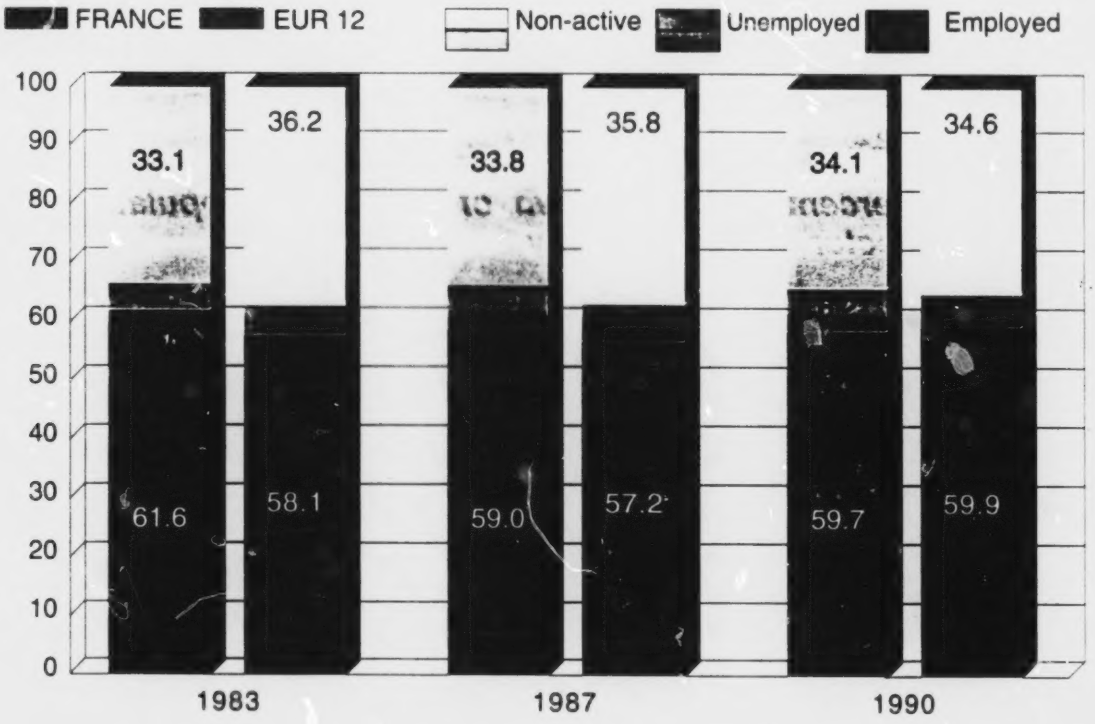
1.2.3.
The active population numbered 24 376 000 in January 1990. As of that date, members of the active population who were in fact in employment totalled 22 139 000. The working rate, 55.2% in 1989, is close to the EC average (54.2%). At 64.8%, it is higher for men than for women, 45.8%.

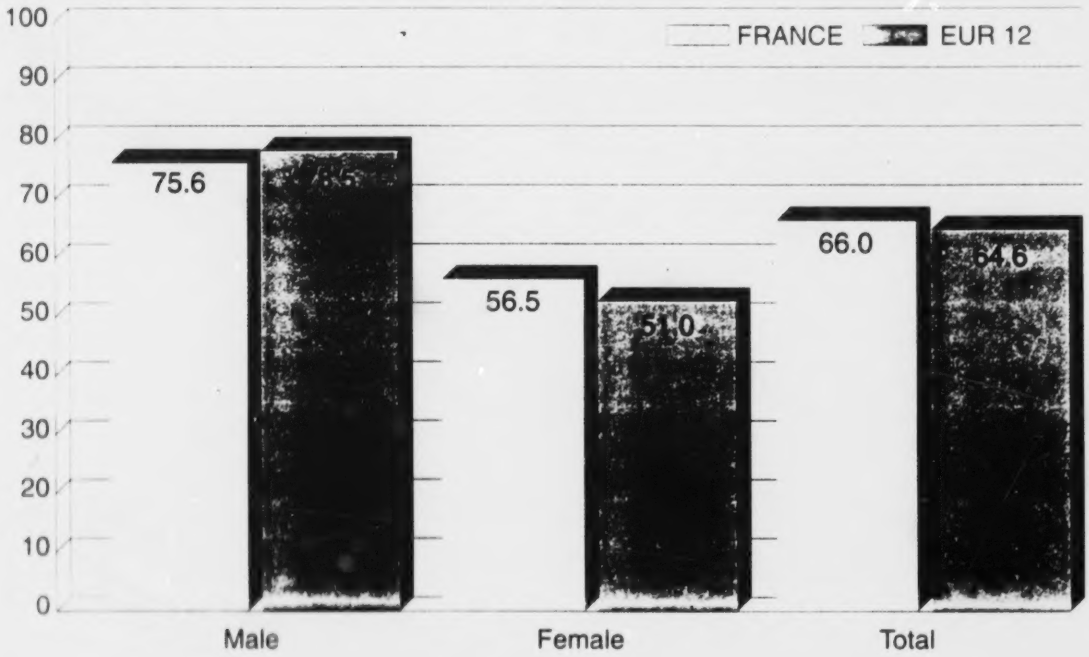
The growth in the total work-force was 90 000 persons per year between 1985 and 1989. According to INSEE predictions, the active population will rise by close to 26 million by 2005. Unless the birth rate increases, the work-force will then decline until, by 2025, it returns to its 1985 level. According to INSEE, there are four ways of maintaining the active population at its current level: recourse to immigration, raising the retirement age, an increase in the rate of female occupation and higher productivity. The decline in the active population might have a beneficial effect on unemployment, but this would not be automatic since — as already happens today — a manpower shortage can coexist with high unemployment due to a mismatch between the jobs available and the qualifications of those seeking employment. This represents a challenge for training over the next few years.

Population aged 14 to 64 — percentage breakdown by working status — 1983, 1987 and 1990



Source: Eurostat — Labour force surveys.

Activity rate of population aged 14 to 64 by sex — 1988 (%)



Source: Eurostat — *A social portrait of Europe, 1991.*

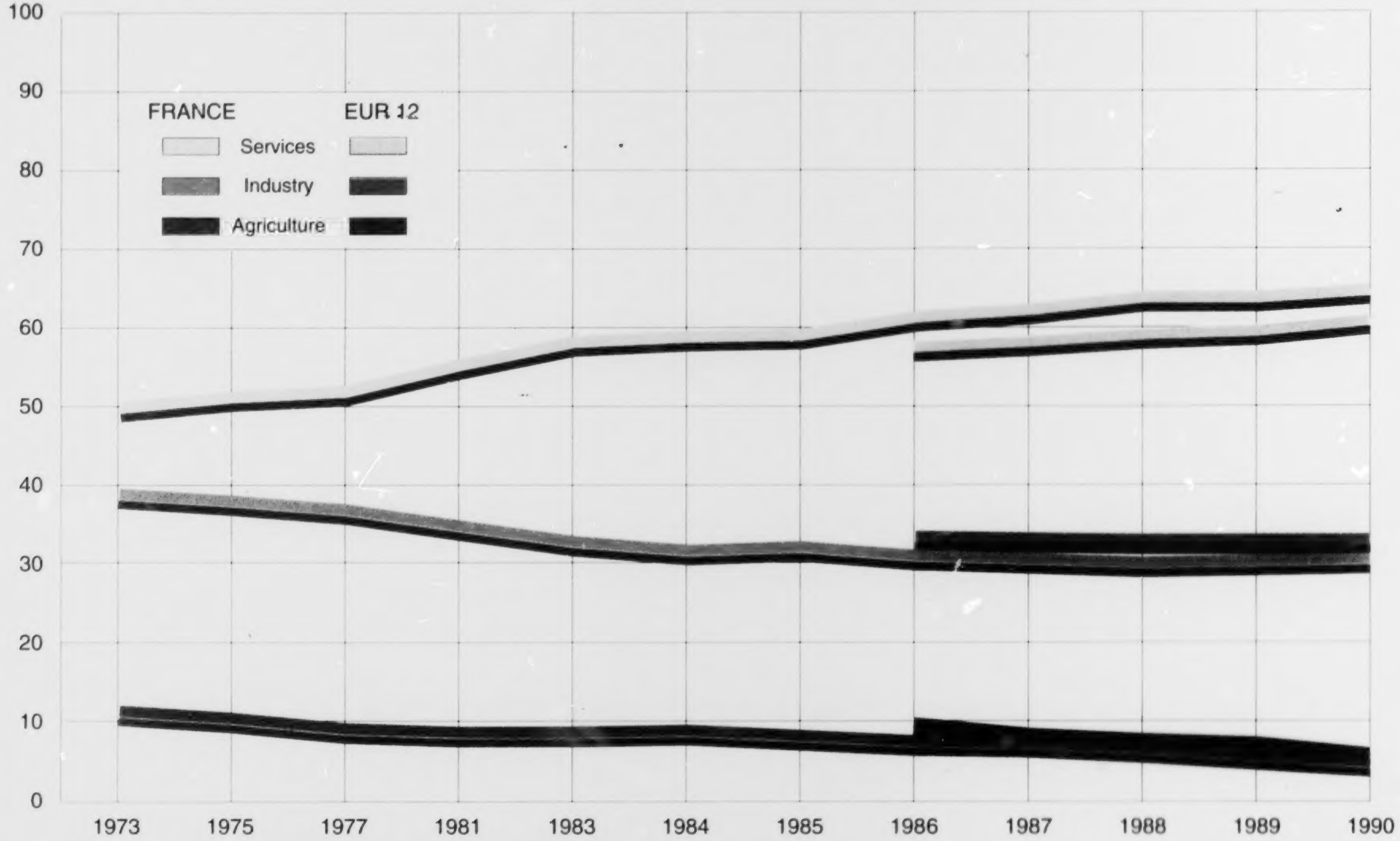
1.2.4.

Percentage breakdown of the active population by sector of the economy

Year	Agriculture	Industry	Services
1968	15.6	37.4	47.0
1974	10.6	38.5	50.9
1980	8.6	35.2	56.2
1985	7.5	31.6	60.9
1990	6.1	29.2	64.6

Source: INSEE.

Employment by economic sector



Source: Eurostat — Labour force surveys, 1990-91.

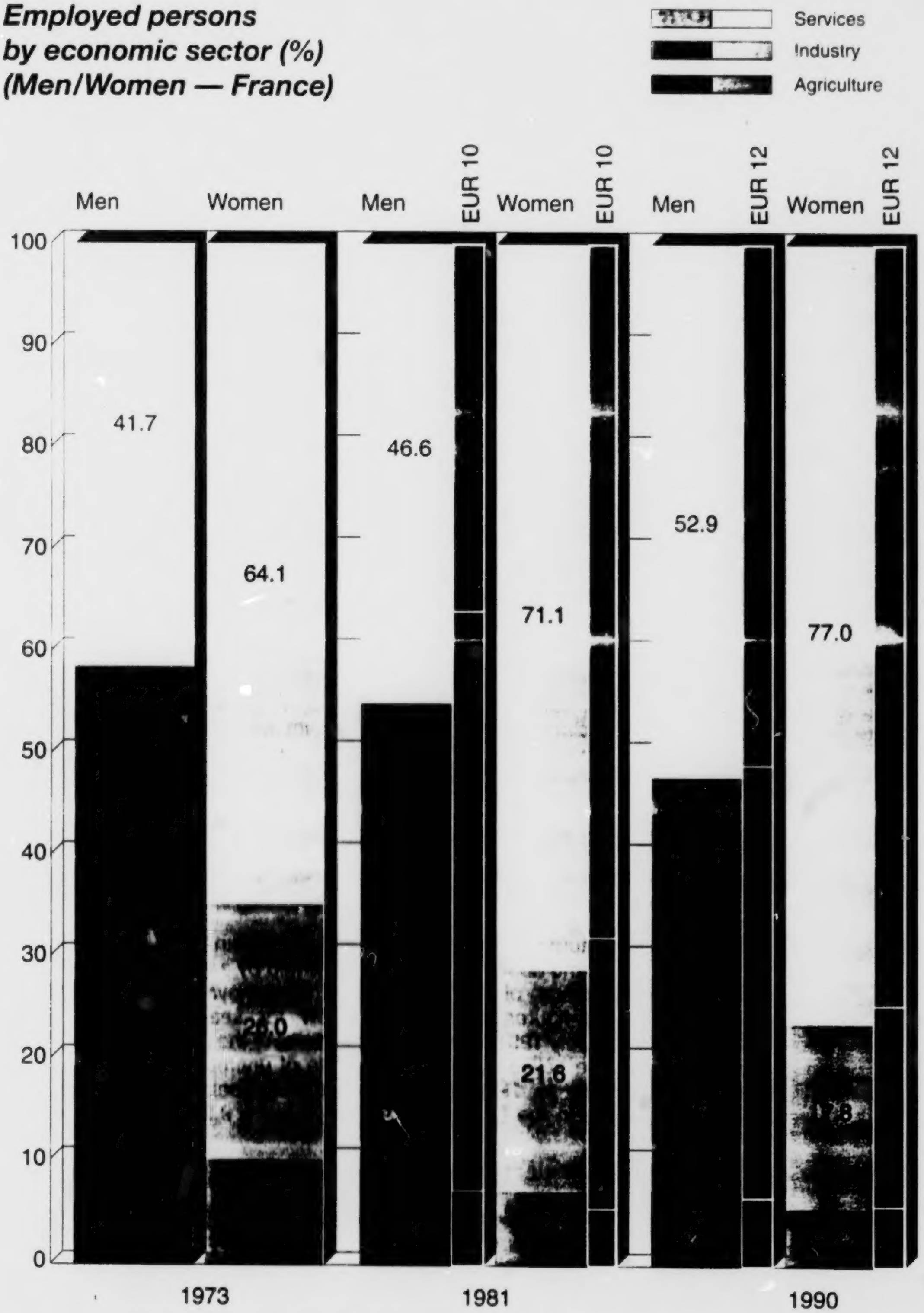
1.2.5.
There have been three major trends in the active population over the past 20 years:

- a higher proportion of female workers, although this tendency has been slowing down since 1985, mainly because they are now trained to a higher level than men and due to the greater concentration of women in the services sector, which has created many jobs over this same period. The employment rate for women aged 25 to 54, for example, has risen from 43% in 1954 to 64% in 1982 and to 72% in 1988;
- a decrease in the number of older employees, due to the retirement age being lowered to 60, as well as social measures such as negotiated early retirement. The rate of activity among men aged 60 to 64, for example, has fallen from 40% in 1982 to 25% today;
- the fact that young people start work at a later age, the consequence both of extending the period of education and of the difficulties encountered by young people in finding their first jobs.

1.2.6.
A feature of patterns of employment in the 1980s has been the development of forms that diverge from the conventional model of full-time jobs and indefinite contracts of employment. In 1988, 18% of employees had such 'atypical' jobs, 12% of them being part-time workers, 3% workers under contract for a specific period, 2% in training placements and 1% temporary workers. These jobs are taken mainly by young people and women. In assessing how such forms of employment will develop, it should be pointed out that in 1992 they are reflected in most forms of recruitment.

1.2.7.
Finally, despite the decline in the number of people working on the land, self-employment has started to rise again since 1985, essentially due to new businesses being started up in the services sector. There have been several reasons for this trend: the fact that middle managers have been setting up on their own account as service providers, the subcontracting practised by large firms, 'covert subcontracting' or the placement of labour contracts outside the workplace, and the aid for new business creation offered by the authorities.

Employed persons by economic sector (%) (Men/Women — France)



Source: Eurostat — Labour force surveys.

Persons employed in industry and services by broad NACE group

	1983	1987		1990	
%	F	F	EUR 12	F	EUR 12
Industry					
Energy and water	1.6	1.6	2.0	1.2	1.5
Mineral extraction, chemicals	1.6	1.6	2.0	1.2	1.5
Metal manufacture, engineering	12.4	10.9	11.6	9.3	10.0
Other manufacturing industries	10.6	9.9	11.5	9.1	10.4
Building and civil engineering	7.6	6.9	7.2	7.7	7.8
Services					
Distributive trades, hotels	15.3	15.3	16.0	17.4	18.9
Transport and communication	6.9	6.9	6.4	6.1	5.9
Banking, finance, insurance	8.3	8.9	7.7	9.0	8.0
Public administration	10.2	11.0	9.7	9.1	7.6
Other services	21.1	23.3	20.9	21.5	19.7

Source: Eurostat: Labour force surveys 1983, 1987 and 1990
NACE = Nomenclature des Activités économiques dans la Communauté Européenne/Classification of economic activities in the European Community.

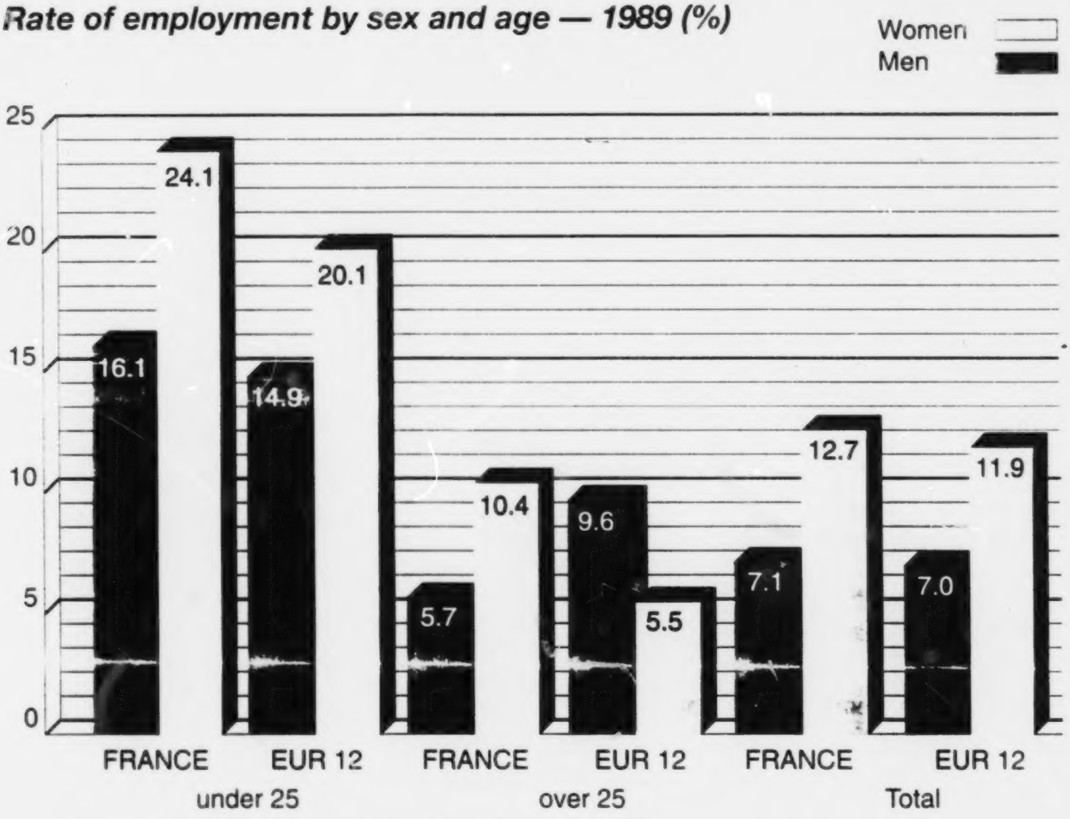
Unemployment

1.2.8.
After a two-year 'return to growth' in 1988 and 1989, with its beneficial effects on employment, 1990 and above all 1991 were marked by a slowing-down in activity and the re-emergence of a high rate of unemployment. The number of job-seekers, using figures adjusted to allow for seasonal variations, was 2 860 000 as of 31 July 1991, a 10.54% increase over the previous 12 months. By comparison with the active population, the rate of unemployment was 10.2% at that date, whereas in 1990 it had fallen back below the 9% line (the unemployment rate in the European Community was 9.9% in 1989 and 9% in 1990).

1.2.9.
According to the Labour Ministry, the recent rise was directly due to slackening recruitment and to lay-offs, especially in industry, as a result of the downturn in the general economic situation. In 1992, the government made employment its priority and embarked on special expenditure to combat long-term unemployment in particular. Unless there is an economic revival, however, it will be difficult to reduce the number of job-seekers on a lasting basis, since the number of new jobs is still not enough.

The following table shows the high rate of youth unemployment and that of unemployment among male workers aged over 25.

Rate of employment by sex and age — 1989 (%)



Source: Eurostat — *A social portrait of Europe, 1991.*

Long-term unemployment

1.2.11.

The number of long-term unemployed has risen from 60 000 in 1974 to 786 000 in December 1990 and 920 000 in 1992, i. e. by over 30% of all job-seekers. According to a 'Conseil économique et social' report on long-term unemployment, almost 500 000 people have been looking for jobs for over two years.

1.2.12.

An analysis of the long-term unemployed highlights the over-representation of women (57% of this group) and the low-skilled, whereas skilled workers, management and technicians are not very evident in this group. Again, according to the report by the Conseil économique et social, the frequency of long-term unemployment is twice as high for the over-50s than it is for job-seekers as a whole (this tendency is reversed in the case of the under-25s). Given the ageing of the active population in the years to come, the continuance of such a structure

	1969	1979	1989
Unemployment rate by age group			
15 to 24	3.3	14.5	20.5
25 to 49	1.0	4.1	8.5
50 and over	1.8	3.9	6.9
Unemployment in 15 to 24 age group			
Men			
No educational qualification	3.9	14.3	24.8
CAP-BEP	—	6.9	12.0
Baccalauréat level	3.3	9.1	10.0
Women			
No educational qualification	7.4	29.1	35.2
CAP-BEP	—	17.6	22.2
Baccalauréat level	4.3	12.3	16.9
Unemployment by socio-occupational group			
Senior management	0.7	2.1	2.3
Intermediate occupations	0.7	2.7	3.6
White-collar workers	1.8	6.3	10.7
Blue-collar workers	1.9	6.4	12.2
Unemployment by sex			
Men	1.4	4.1	7.3
Women	2.0	7.9	12.6
Unemployment rate	1.6	5.6	9.6

Source: INSEE.

1.2.10.
This table shows three forms of inequality associated with age, sex and qualification.

Firstly, youth unemployment made its appearance in the mid-1970s and has not been stemmed; the overall effect of the various plans to promote young people's employment and measures for their integration into the working world was merely to slow down the growth in joblessness. The integration of young people is one of the most urgent issues facing French society (see 2.2.34).

The second striking point relates to female unemployment. Whereas there has been a steady rise in the rate of activity among women, female unemployment is still higher than male unemployment, not just in percentage terms but also in volume. The over-50s are the only age group in which male job-seekers outnumber women. Between 1990 and 1991, the further rise in unemployment, however, affected men more than women (for instance, between May 1990 and May 1991, the number of women registered job-seekers under 25 was stable, whereas there was a 9% increase in the number of men in the same age group; in the 25 to 49 age group, there was a 9% increase in female unemployment and 13% in male unemployment).

The third inequality is in socio-occupational groups. The unemployment rates reveal the need for skilled manpower and the difficulty for the low-skilled unemployed in finding new jobs. Between 1990 and 1991, however, the number of manual and clerical workers seeking employment rose by 10%, whereas that of foremen and executives rose by 20%.

of long-term unemployment would make the problem insoluble. The report also shows that the age from which employees are regarded as having little chance of finding new jobs is tending to fall, with this type of difficulty making its appearance even before the age of 50. The report makes various proposals, including the diversification of female employment, and recommends the adoption of incentives for the recruitment of people over 45.

1.2.13.

Quite apart from statistics and proposals, long-term employment in France raises the problem of a two-tier society. Bringing down long-term unemployment will depend not only on economic growth but also on the ability of society to refuse to exclude groups of people in difficulties. After a plan of action against long-term unemployment, 900 000 people, who have been jobless for more than a year, are to be convened by ANPE in the spring and autumn of 1992. Each individual will be offered a solution in the form of a job, training or activity of value to the community.

Foreign manpower

1.2.14.

According to a survey by the Ministry of Labour, there is a constant decline in non-French manpower in France. As of 31 December 1988, 703 000 foreign nationals were employed in establishments with a work-force of 10 and over, compared with 788 000 in 1985 and 1 074 000 in 1979.

1.2.15.

The following conclusions can be drawn from an analysis of the survey findings:

- The proportion of women in the foreign national work-force is continuing to rise. Although the percentage of employed women compared with the total foreign work-force was stable between 1985 and 1988 (at 20%), the percentage of women among foreign national job-seekers rose from 27 to 35%.
- The Portuguese are still the largest group of foreign nationals working in France, followed by the Algerians.
- Foreign manpower is still concentrated on the whole in manufacturing industry and building and public works. This high concentration in the two sectors, however, is essentially due to long-term immigrants, whereas there is a higher proportion of younger manpower in the services sectors (car repairs and the car trade and the provision of services to individuals in particular).
- The skill levels of those in employment are relatively stable, although they differ considerably depending on nationality. EC nationals, apart from Italians, Spanish and Portuguese, for example, are on the whole managerial staff, technicians or, to a lesser degree, foremen; they constitute only a small proportion of blue-collar workers. In other words the breakdown is exactly the opposite of that of all other nationalities.

- Almost half of foreign nationals in employment work in the Île-de-France. The region of Rhône-Alpes is the second largest region in terms of numbers of foreign employees.

Foreign manpower (%)

Nationality	**1982**	**1985**	**1988**
Portuguese	27.6	28.4	28.9
Algerian	22.2	19.9	19.3
Moroccan	11.8	11.9	12.8
Italian	8.4	7.8	6.9
Spanish	7.8	7.3	6.4
Black African	3.9	4.6	5.3
Tunisian	4.9	4.7	4.9
Other nationalities	2.8	4.3	4.4
Other EC nationalities	3.2	3.7	3.8
Turkish	3.0	2.9	3.0
Khmer, Lao, Vietnamese	1.9	2.2	2.2
Yugoslav	2.5	2.3	2.1
Total for all nationalities	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ministry of Employment.

Breakdown of foreigners in employment by skill level and sex (%)

Sex	**Manual workers**		**Clerical workers**		**Managerial**		**Total**	
	1985	**1988**	**1985**	**1988**	**1985**	**1988**	**1985**	**1988**
Men	83.6	82.9	12.8	13.2	2.6	3.9	100.0	100.0
Women	63.1	61.1	35.0	35.9	1.9	1.9	100.0	100.0
Total	79.5	78.8	17.2	17.5	3.3	3.7	100.0	100.0

Source: Ministry of Employment.

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1.3. The economy

General statistics

1.3.1.

The late 1980s saw a series of good results for the French economy: a high growth rate (+ 3.7% in 1988 and 1989), sustained industrial output (+ 5.4% in 1988 and + 4.7% in 1989), growth in industrial investment (+ 12% in 1988, + 8.2% in 1989), new job creation (+ 260 000 in 1988, + 300 000 in 1989) and inflation kept down to 3/3.5% per year, one of the lowest rates in industrialized nations. The pattern changed in 1990, when growth fell back to 2.6%, a fall observed in most OECD countries except for Germany and Japan. It was prolonged by the Gulf War, which led to a further drop in the growth rate in 1991. A recovery, although only slight, is expected in the second half of 1992.

1.3.2.

There was a decline in business in most branches of the economy, especially in the manufacturing industries, building and public works, and services to enterprises. Domestic consumption was the main motive force for growth in 1990.

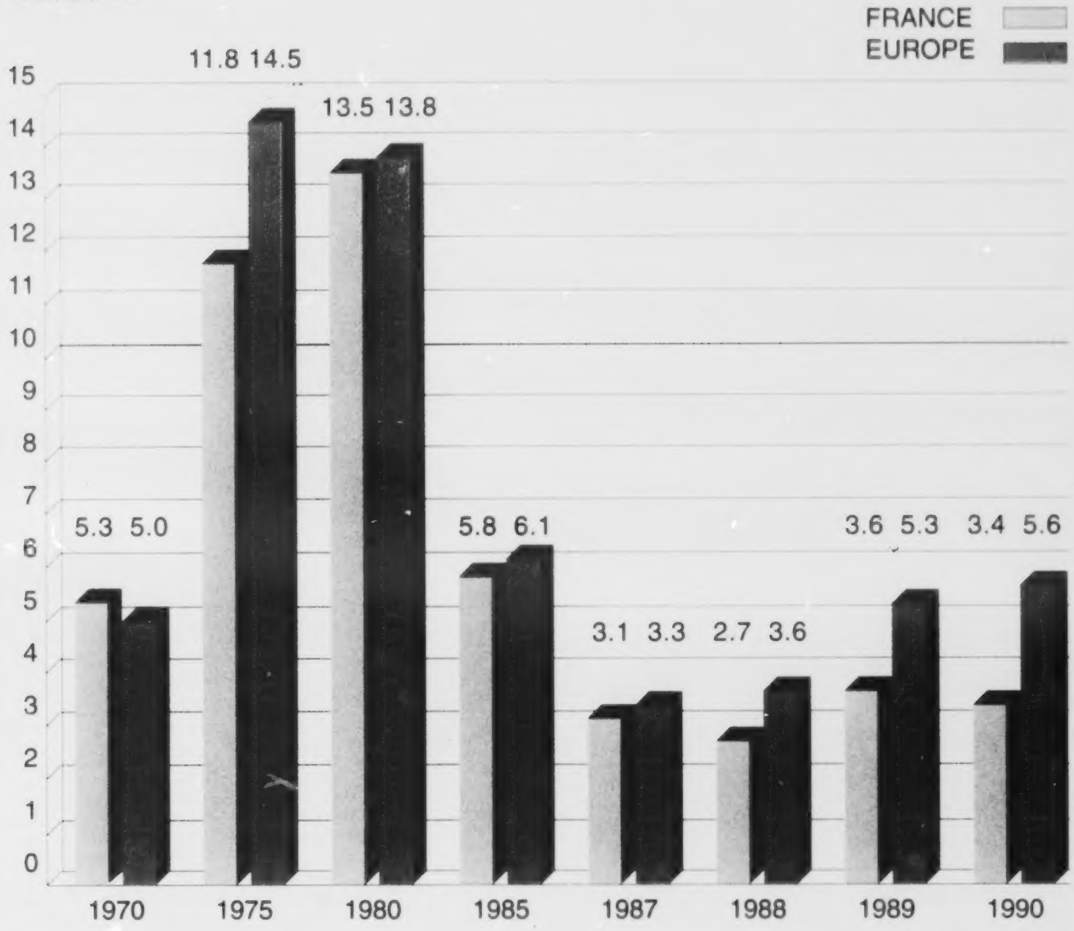
1.3.3.

The four leading branches of the French economy in 1990 were in the services sector: non-trade services, business, trade services for enterprises and property renting.

Background information

1.3.4.

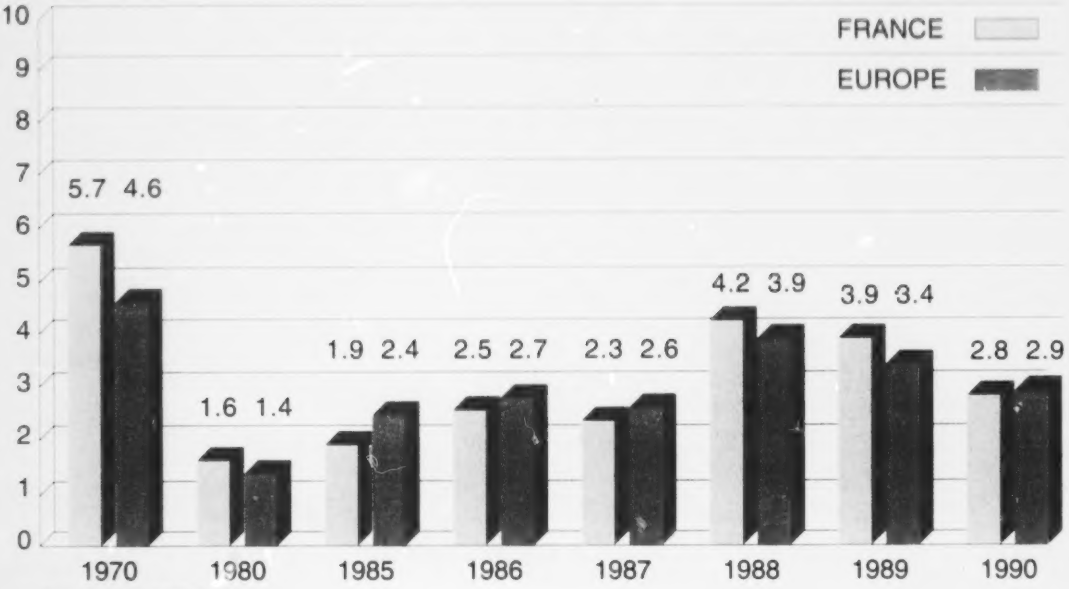
Inflation



Source: INSEE.

1.3.5.

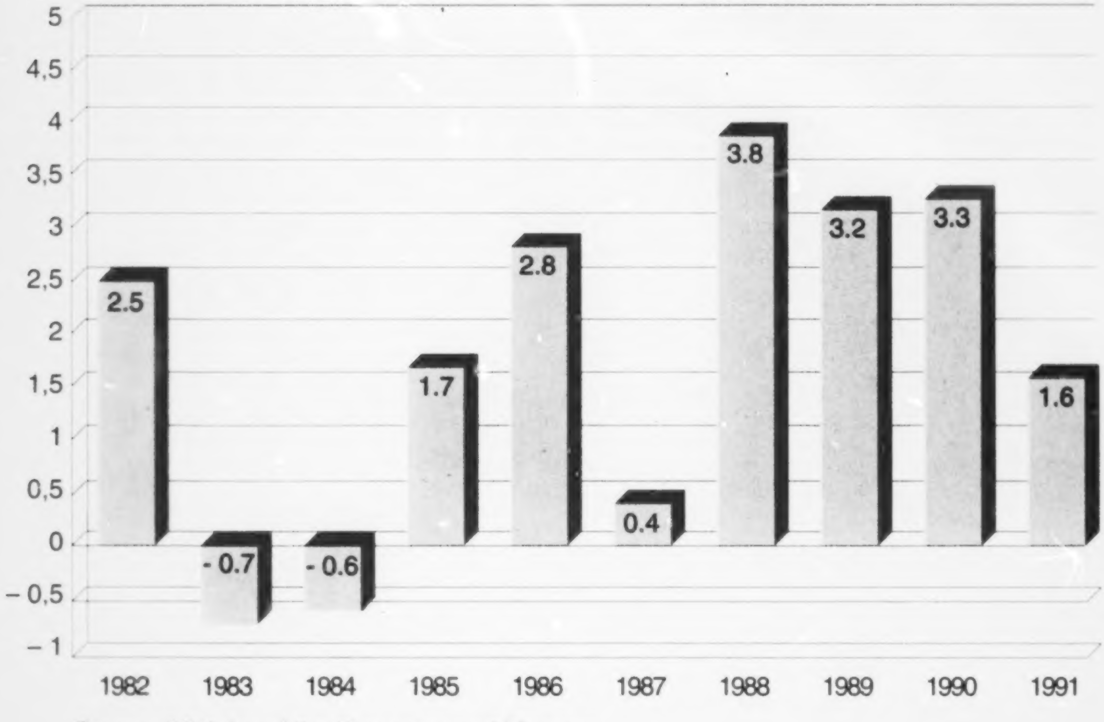
GDP growth rate



Source: INSEE.

1.3.6.

Purchasing power of disposable income (France)



Source: Ministry of the Economy and Finance.

THE VOCATIONAL TRAINING SYSTEM

2.1. The historical background

2.1.1.
The history of vocational training in France shows that constant efforts have been devoted to the training of the élite over the past three centuries, but it has been far harder for the vocational training of young people and adults in general to emerge.

The laborious emergence of vocational training in France

2.1.2.
As far back as the 18th century, 'écoles supérieures techniques' were created to train professionals (École des ponts et chaussées in 1747, École des mines in 1783, etc.). The French Revolution of 1789 extended the work initiated by the monarchy by creating the École polytechnique in 1794 and then the Conservatoire national des arts et métiers (CNAM). Training, in other words, was primarily for engineers and technicians.

2.1.3.
On the other hand, the Revolution dealt a fatal blow to apprenticeship by doing away with 'corporations' (guilds) in 1791 for political reasons. Despite the generous ideas developed by Condorcet before the National Assembly, the revolutionary period in fact eliminated a channel of training that had previously been accessible to all.

2.1.4.
Throughout the 19th century, efforts were made to promote public education and adult training. One instance was the Guizot Law which, in 1833, stated that every commune should build its own school. Another was the efforts of Duruy from 1864 onwards to develop adult training. Finally, there were the achievements of the Third Republic, with the creation of technical schools in 1880, the introduction of free primary education for all in 1881 and compulsory schooling in 1882 (at the end of the 19th century, education was compulsory up to the age of 13).

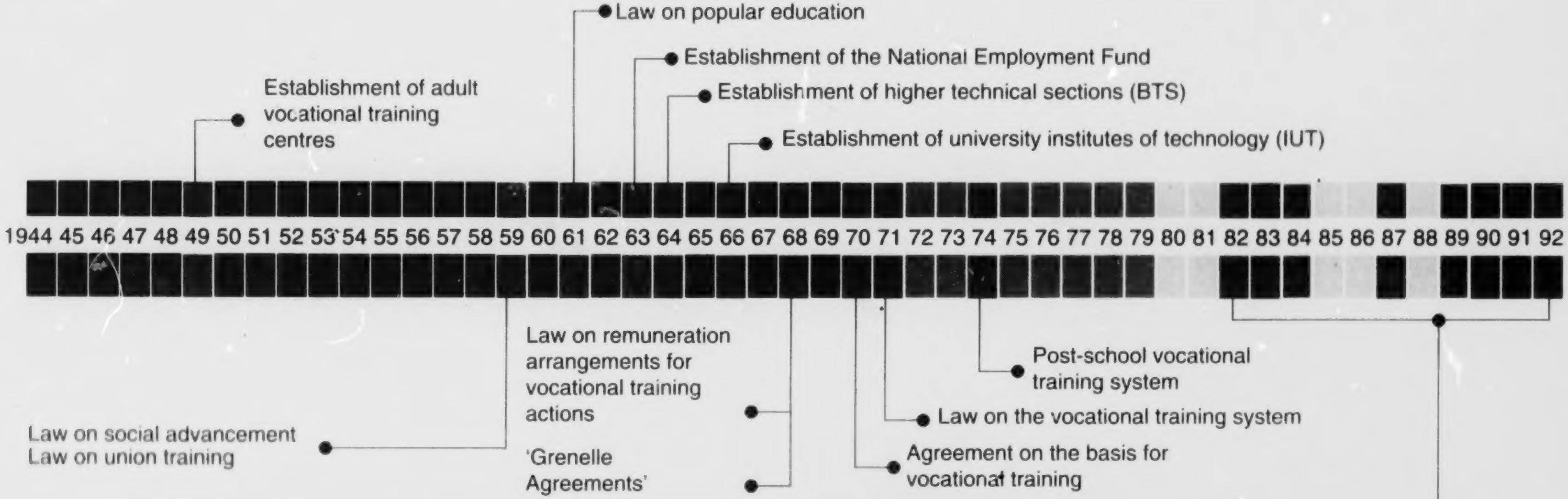
2.1.5.
It was not until 1919 and the Astier Law that apprenticeship was reintroduced. This law set up free, compulsory vocational courses for apprentices being trained by employers. These courses were funded by the communes and, from 1925 onwards, received the proceeds from an apprenticeship levy imposed on employers.

2.1.6.
There was, therefore, a three-tier configuration in the system existing before 1945:

- at the higher level, 'écoles supérieures techniques' (higher technical schools);
- at the intermediate level, establishments set up as a result of the 1880 law;
- at the lower level of skills, apprenticeship centres.

One point of note is that in France, once the corporations had disappeared, the only place where training could in fact be established was in the public and general educational system. Teaching by Church bodies, the unions and employers has always existed of course, but it was never on the broad scale achieved in English-speaking countries.

Evolution of the vocational training system



Law on popular education

Establishment of the National Employment Fund

Establishment of higher technical sections (BTS)

Establishment of adult vocational training centres

Establishment of university institutes of technology (IUT)

Law on remuneration arrangements for vocational training actions

Post-school vocational training system

Law on the vocational training system

Law on social advancement
Law on union training

'Grenelle Agreements'

Agreement on the basis for vocational training

1982	**Schwarz report on the integration of young people**
1983	**Decentralization of education and vocational training**
1984	**Reform of vocational training (Law of 24 February)**
1987	**Launching of training plans for the long-term unemployed** **Establishment of vocational baccalaureate**
1989	**Guidance law, setting target of 80% of young people reaching level IV by year 2000** **Establishment of training entitlement**
1990	**Law on vocational training monitoring and quality**
1991	**Social partner's agreement on vocational training** **Establishment of vocationalized university institutes**
1992	**Law on apprenticeship**

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The birth of the present-day system

2.1.7.
True vocational training, above all continuing training, did not really make its appearance until after the Second World War. With the demands of reconstruction, a great effort had to be made to train manpower of working age. The establishment of 'centres de formation professionnelle accélérée' (FPA — accelerated vocational training centres — later to become 'centres de formation professionnelle pour adultes' — adult vocational training centres) was a response to this need. The State took over the funding of these centres, whose aim was to teach skills to adults in short courses (usually six months). In 1949, the running of the centres was entrusted to the 'Association nationale interprofessionnelle pour la formation rationnelle de la main-d'œuvre' (ANIFRMO — national interindustry association for rational manpower training), later to become AFPA (see 3.1.15).

2.1.8.
With the economic development of the post-war period, especially in the early 1960s, there was a growing demand from employers for skilled manpower. Not finding what they needed in initial training, they turned to the existing adult training institutions. The first response from the authorities to employers' needs, and also to employees' aspirations, came under the Gaullist social programme. It was brought about by Michel Debré, the then Prime Minister, in the form of a major 'promotion sociale' (social advancement) campaign designed to provide training facilities for everybody wishing to take vocational training. Three laws were introduced to implement this plan: the Law of 1959 on social advancement, the Law of December 1959 on training provided by the unions, and the Law of December 1961 on adult education.

2.1.9.
The principles laid down by the Law of July 1959 were later to serve in the development of a system of continuing vocational training. They were that:

- the State could give aid towards the running of all training centres, public or private, that entered into a 'convention' (agreement) (see Annex 3) with the authorities. This set up the technique of subsidizing under a convention, which was more effective than simple subsidies and simpler to implement than for the State to run the training itself;
- all those people taking training — no longer just trainees at FPA centres — were entitled to remuneration. This was the technique of 'agrément' or validation, whereby the State could determine whether the training would qualify a person for remuneration;
- there was the need to coordinate a policy on social advancement.

2.1.10.
The law provided great impetus for the social advancement centres. For example, nine 'instituts de la promotion supérieure du travail' (IPST — institutes for the advancement of work) were set up and some 30 cities were the location for centres associated with the Conservatoire national des arts et métiers. The law took a social and individual approach to training. Training was offered to anyone who merited it and wished to take courses outside working hours. In giving

everybody the resources for their betterment, the authorities felt they had responded to the concern for social justice. This law, however, was not enough to meet the needs of the economy, and as a result the growth rate in the provision of training was further increased.

2.1.11.
In 1963 the 'Fonds national de l'emploi' (FNE — National Employment Fund) was set up with the task of supporting industrial restructuring, in particular through training schemes for employees laid off or under the threat of redundancy. In parallel, the educational system was also meeting employers' needs for technicians and intermediate executives by setting up sections for advanced technicians in 1964 and issuing 'brevets de techniciens supérieurs' (BTS — advanced technicians' diplomas) and, two years later, the 'instituts universitaires de technologie' (IUT — university institutes of technology) leading to the 'diplôme universitaire de technologie' (DUT — university diploma in technology). These shorter tertiary courses, offering a two-year period of study for each diploma, proved successful, and that success continues today.

2.1.12.
To extend and implement all the principles laid down by the 1959 Law, on 3 December 1966 a new law was enacted filling in the details on the arrangements that had already been set up. This guidance and planning law on vocational training, however, also included a major innovation: recognition of the right of employees to individual leave for the purpose of training. The structure set up in this manner was supplemented by a Law of 31 December 1968, which appeared to have rounded out the system by defining the arrangements for remuneration applicable to the various vocational training measures.

2.1.13.
Nevertheless, due to various factors, the arrangement as a whole was subsequently revised, even though many of the provisions of the laws of 1959, 1963 and 1966 were to be taken up again. The factors bringing about this general review of the system came under four headings.

Economic factors

These have already been mentioned: they reflected employers' needs for technicians and middle-ranking executives. According to a survey by the metallurgical industry's employers' association in 1965, 80% of technicians and engineers did not hold a diploma matching the job they performed. It was vital, then, to find ways of training employees.

Social factors

The growth period of the 1960s, the arrival of the consumer society and aspirations to self-improvement to take fuller advantage of that consumer society were all factors motivating employees to grasp every opportunity they were offered to train. The aspiration was particularly prominent among the groups born before the war, i. e. those aged 25 and 35 in the 1960s.

Scholastic factors

The initial education system revealed serious inadequacies in the 1960s. Two thirds of young people entered the working world without any certified training. Furthermore, in those years there were great disparities in the educational system. Fewer than 10% of the children of rural and blue-collar workers, at the time accounting for more than half the working population, went on to higher education. The children of senior management and professional parents, who accounted for only 6% [illegible] the working population, made up almost half of the student body at university and even more in the 'grandes écoles'. A second chance for those who had left the educational system was seen as vital, and undoubtedly this inadequacy of initial vocational education was the main cause of the development of the French continuing training system.

Political factors

These were on the whole the immediate causes of setting up a continuing training system, rather than the deep-rooted causes which were better expressed by the factors described above. Following the events of May 1968, the Grenelle Agreements ended the strikes and workplace sit-ins and embodied the commitment of the two sides of industry to negotiate in individual sectors of industry or at the interindustry level on a number of subjects, together with the government's commitment to legislate in certain fields, for example on recognition of the role of the unions in the workplace.

Vocational training, which had not previously been a union claim except in the case of management unions, was placed on the agenda in collective bargaining, although no clearly defined political resolve was expressed. The negotiations initiated after the Grenelle Agreements in fact led to the agreement of 9 July 1970, later to be embodied in the Law of 16 July 1971. These two pieces of legislation are the foundation of the French vocational training system today.

Twenty years of continuing vocational training

(A) The institutionalization of training policies

2.1.14.
In the early 1970s, the social partners and the State set up a system for the management of training policies which was never to be fundamentally reshaped thereafter, despite the developments in the role performed by training. An important point is the essential part played by the two sides of industry in creating the system. The method of embodying agreements reached through collective bargaining in law or regulations, one that was decided upon right from the start, has hardly changed since then. The most recent agreement of 3 July 1991, for instance, is exemplary in this respect since the law takes up the nub of its provisions without disrupting either the general economics of the agreement or the guidelines it lays down.

2.1.15.
The agreement of 9 July 1970 established principles reflecting an individual — perhaps even an individualistic — concept of vocational training which prevailed at the time, as well as the union claim for some participation by employees in the management of the company in which they worked. The first principle reflects the adoption of the employee's right, not just the opportunity, to be away from the workplace to take training during working hours. The second reflects the responsibility assigned to works' committees for training, even though this is exercised only through consultation and not through the power to make decisions.

2.1.16.
The Law of 16 July 1971 placed vocational training in the context of permanent education, at the same time expressing high ambitions: training should not only allow for individual advancement and support the economic development of the country but should combat inequality of opportunity and help the educational system to become less inward-looking. According to Jacques Delors, who gave his name to the 1971 Law, the aim in instituting continuing training was to affect initial training as well. The consensus that existed between the social partners and the State was regarded as a major step towards achieving this ambition.

2.1.17.
In terms of content, the 1971 Law incorporated the main provisions of the agreement and laid down the principle that employers should fund continuing training. A levy amounting to 0.8% of the wage bill had to be set aside each year by employers for the financing of continuing training. The employer could spend these amounts on training his own employees, or could negotiate training agreements with public- or private-sector training centres; alternatively, it could contribute towards a 'Fonds d'assurance formation' (training insurance fund) or finance training centres that ran vocational training for job-seekers.

2.1.18.
The idea of such funds had previously been introduced by the Law of 3 December 1968, but without success. Now they were at the heart of the financing system set up in this manner. The funds were agencies set up by a collective convention or outline agreement between employers' and employees' organizations to receive the funds contributed out of the employers' compulsory levy and use them to finance training schemes for the benefit of the employees of those companies, within their field of competence.

2.1.19.
The 1971 Law, therefore, laid down the principle that the employer should fund continuing training and that the social partners should be able to administer those monies. All the financial transactions were conducted under the supervision of the State through the 'Groupe national de contrôle de la formation professionnelle' (national group for the supervision of vocational training), which was set up for the purpose. The main features of the continuing training system were thus combined in these two founding pieces of legislation: the right of employees to training, the financing of that training by employers, fiscal supervision by the State and social supervision by the social partners (through the works' committees or training insurance funds).

(B) From permanent education to the management of employment

2.1.20.
Even though the State already intervened in the field of training, especially — as we have discussed — through the Fonds national de l'emploi (see 2.1.11) set up in 1963 and the centres de formation professionnelle pour adultes (see 2.1.7), the 1971 Law gave the State more of a regulatory role than powers of direct intervention. Developments in the economic situation then considerably modified this approach. In 1974 the first oil crisis marked the end of what had been called the '30 glorious years', in other words the 30 years after the Second World War, a time of economic growth and full employment. Then came what was at the time called the recession, marking the beginning of a radical change in Western economies. It led to a steep rise in unemployment, particularly among

young people. The measures adopted to promote youth employment institutionalized intervention by the authorities and the State's management of a post-scholastic system of vocational training.

2.1.21.
The scope of this action by the authorities was extended over the 1980s, first through decentralization, under which regions were in principle given responsibility for training, thus introducing a new operator into what was beginning to become a highly complex training landscape, and later by taking the social approach to unemployment, in particular long-term unemployment which had risen sharply from the mid-1980s. In 1986, for example, for the first time since 1971, the State allocated more money to vocational training than did employers. Public-sector financing (State plus regions) today totals about two thirds of the amount spent on continuing training (see 3.2.2).

(C) Adapting the system to a modern economy

2.1.22.
Political fluctuations in 1981 had the result of not only decentralizing responsibilities in 1983 but also of launching a review of vocational training. The then Minister for Vocational Training called for an adaptation of the system that had been set up in 1971 to meet the needs of the changing economy. The reforms introduced by the interindustry agreements of September 1982 and October 1983, as well as the Law on vocational training of January 1984, followed along the same lines as previous legislation, which they amended rather than reformed.

2.1.23.
The contributions made by these pieces of legislation were as follows:

- The national interindustry agreement of 21 September 1982 laid down the principles that the training plan should be financed separately by the employer and that employees should be entitled to individual training leave. Henceforth that training leave would be funded by a levy of 0.1% of the wage bill, which every enterprise employing 10 or more people had to pay to an approved agency. This agency then granted funds for the individual training leave of those employees applying for it. By externalizing the system of funding individual training leave, rather than the previously mooted idea that a contribution similar to that of paid holidays be made, the success of the measure was assured.
- The national interindustry agreement of 26 October 1983 set up three alternance training measures for young people. The first, the 'Stage d'initiation à la vie professionnelle' (SIVP — period of initiation to working life), placed the young person in a working situation during a practical training period, while the two others — the 'contrat de qualification' (qualification contract) and the 'contrat d'adaptation' (adaptation contract) — were special types of contracts of employment designed to promote the integration of young people into the working world by combining work, training and financial benefits for the employer, in particular exemptions from social security contributions (see 2.2.54).
- The Law of 24 February 1984 closely reflected the content of the two preceding agreements, thus broadening the scale of the measures that had been created by the social partners. The law also established the obligation to negotiate on training at the level of individual sectors of industry and, failing such negotiations, at company level. The outcome of these negotiations,

which took place between 1984 and 1985, admittedly did not come up to the high expectations of the authorities. Finally, the law undertook to regulate the training market more closely by imposing a number of obligations on training agencies, including the provision of more comprehensive information for trainees as to their curricula and the way in which placement periods were organized.

2.1.24.
This intensive production of laws and regulations not only added to the existing measures but meant that many more parties were involved. For instance, there were almost 20 different arrangements for job placements conferring trainee status, with no clear definition of this status and, above all, with no uniformity among measures. Once the initial period of building up and developing the system came to an end, thought had to be given as to how it could be rationalized and made more effective.

(D) Rationalization of the system

2.1.25.
The system can be seen as the latest phase of development in the vocational training system. This action was launched in 1988 and was based on two main ideas. The first was that some order should be imposed on a set of measures which had been brought into existence over the years and on occasions survived for no good logical reason, or for a logical reason long since forgotten. The State therefore regrouped the various arrangements for practical placements and centred them on more broadly defined target groups. This meant that, in addition to the alternance training set up by the social partners, young people could essentially take advantage of 'crédit-formation' (training entitlement — see 2.2.73) and adult job-seekers could take advantage of integration and training schemes (see 2.3.49).

2.1.26.
The second action was directed towards the training market. The aim was twofold: to clarify this market, in particular the provision of training, and to ensure that the quality of training provided was maintained either by more stringent supervision of training agencies or by imposing new obligations on those agencies, more particularly in the field of training information and publicity. This action took the tangible form of the Law of 4 July 1990 on the supervision and quality of vocational training, one purpose of which was to lay the foundations for the consumer's right to training (see 3.1.66). The same law stated the principle that every person entering working life is entitled to a qualification, this right being exercised through what is known as crédit-formation.

2.1.27.
The State, however, is not alone in the effort to clarify its actions. Twenty years after the introduction of the first interindustry agreement on the subject of vocational training, the social partners have embarked upon the restructuring of the device of the 'training convention' which they themselves set up. A year's negotiation led to the signature of an agreement on 3 July 1991 on basic and advanced training. This agreement is of considerable importance. First of all it is a major effort to codify the regulations, in that it embodies, or annuls 19 joint employer-union regulations on continuing training. Next, it clearly expresses the resolve of the two sides of industry to accept more responsibility in the field of vocational training, taking a part both in the creation of titles and diplomas and in the provision of part of the training. It affirms the role of the employer as a trainer and clarifies certain procedures. Finally, the agreement sets out a whole series of

innovatory measures, most of them creating new rights for the employee which may in the longer term influence working relationships and the basis for those relationships: the contract of employment.

2.1.28.
An act passed on 31 December 1991 incorporates the essential provisions of the agreement of 3 July 1991, with some adjustments. The two instruments have introduced the following changes:

- the rate of levy on employers to finance vocational training has risen from 1.2% of the wage bill to 1.4%, and this obligation has been extended to enterprises employing fewer than 10 people and to heads of enterprises at a lower rate of 0.15%;
- two new arrangements for the integration of young people have been created: the 'Contrat d'orientation' (guidance contract) and the 'Contrat local d'orientation' (local guidance contract) (see 2.2.51 to 2.2.53 and 2.2.78);
- the legal recognition of the audit of personal vocational skills which is available to employees during *ad hoc* leave (see 2.3.23) or under the training plan;
- clauses of the crédit formation measure and training outside working hours under the training plan are regulated (see 2.3.33).

2.1.29.
A bill that would revitalize apprenticeship and develop alternance training as part of school education was tabled in Parliament in the spring of 1992. This bill demonstrates the priority placed on alternance training as the route to the first level of recognized qualifications (see 2.2.39).

(E) Conclusions on the historical development of the vocational training system

2.1.30.
France has set up a system of continuing training, the penalty for whose wealth is its complexity. It has been constructed outside the system of initial vocational education — there is a temptation to say that it is constructed against this system. Now that it has reached maturity, the system may of course be improved, and recent reforms are attempting to do so. Even so, it seems that the challenge to the future of the continuing training system lies in whether it can complement and come closer to initial training. The current debate on alternance will perhaps help to provide a preliminary response.

2.2. Initial vocational training

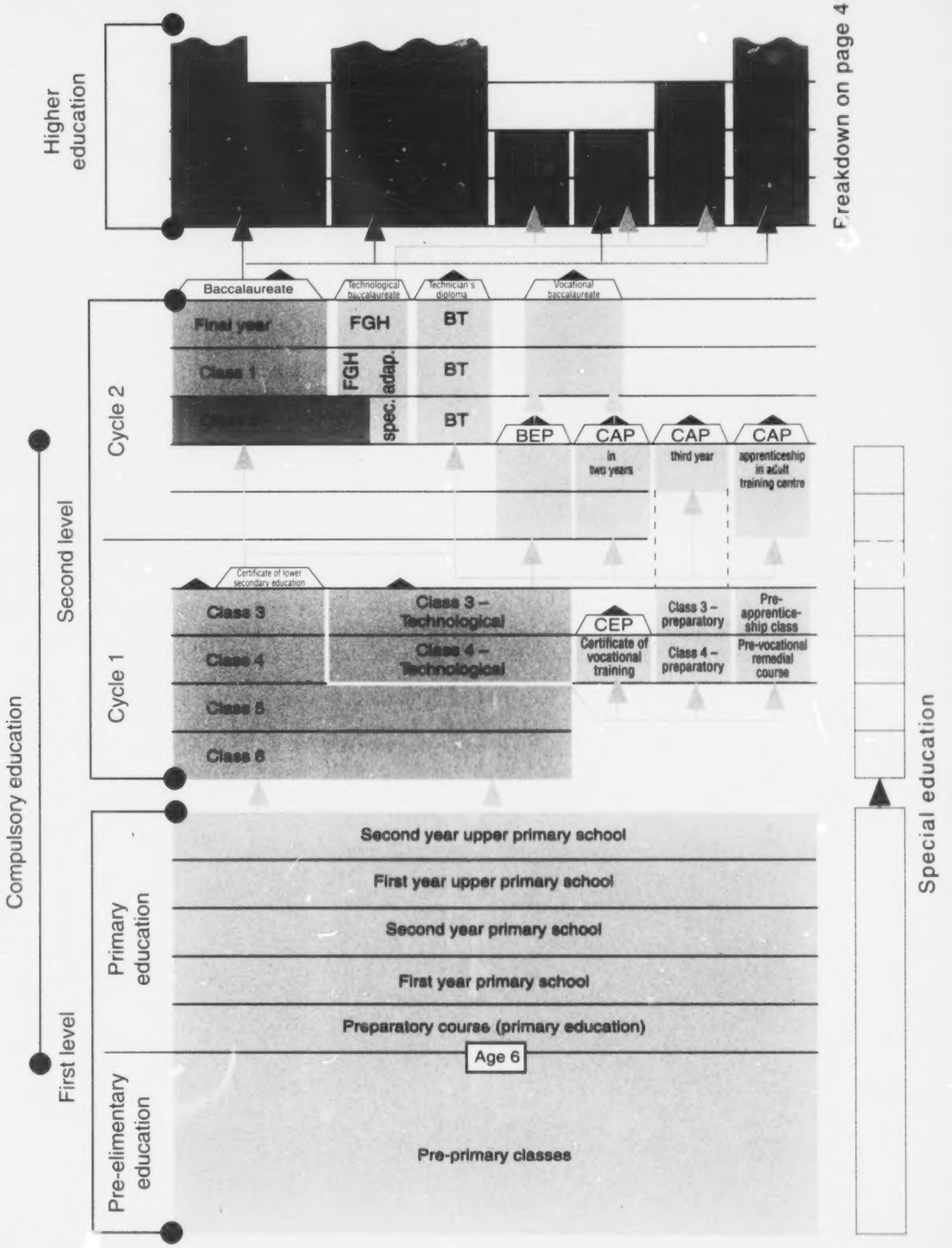
2.2.1.
This section describes all the forms of training for young people, whether they are still at school, are students or have left the school system. This breakdown, however imperfect as regards the French situation — where school-level training is included in the continuing training system — will none the less make it possible to cover in a single section all the problems inherent in the integration of young people into working life.

Vocational training in the education system

(A) General description of the education system

2.2.2.
The French education system can be described as a national, unified, centralized system. It is national in that the 1958 Constitution recognizes the predominant role of the State. It is unified in that national education is a public service directly administered by the State through the Ministry of National Education. It is still centralized in order to uphold the principles of equal treatment for all and the right to training granted by the Republic to all its citizens. These three specific features do, however, have their limits. The national character and centralization of education are tempered by the growing involvement of local bodies in running the system (see 1.1.6 *et seq.*), while the unity of education as a public service should not be confused with uniformity, since freedom of teaching means that private education can coexist at every level of education. (Out of 15 million pupils and students, 12 million are in public-sector establishments and approximately three million are in private-sector establishments, mainly run by the Church.)

2 The educational system in France


Higher education
Breakdown on page 41
Baccalaureate
Technological baccalaureate
Technician's diploma
Vocational baccalaureate
Final year
FGH
BT
Class 1
FGH
adap.
BT
Class 2
spec.
BT
BEP
CAP
in two years
CAP
third year
CAP
apprenticeship in adult training centre
Cycle 2
Second level
Compulsory education
Certificate of lower secondary education
Class 3
Class 3 – Technological
Class 4
Class 4 – Technological
CEP
Certificate of vocational training
Class 3 – preparatory
Class 4 – preparatory
Pre-apprenticeship class
Pre-vocational remedial course
Class 5
Class 6
Cycle 1
Second year upper primary school
First year upper primary school
Second year primary school
First year primary school
Preparatory course (primary education)
Age 6
Primary education
Pre-primary classes
Pre-elimentary education
First level
Special education

☐ Final examination

▲ Main points of leaving educational system

→ Main flow to next level of education

* Each cell represents one year's study, except for pre-primary educatio (aged 2 to 5) and higher education

Source: Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, *Repères et références statistiques sur les enseignements et la formation,* 1990 edition, p. 11.

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2.2.3.
In 1988 education and training were announced as priorities for government action. In 1991 the education budget, amounting to FF 248 300 million (19% of the national budget) was, in fact, the largest item of government spending. Since 1988, there has been a FF 50 000 million increase in the credits allocated towards national education (+25%) and close to a 40 000 increase in the numbers employed in this sector. Today more than a million people work in education, some 750 000 of whom are teachers. This unprecedented effort is directed towards meeting two objectives by the year 2000: to ensure that everybody reaches at least level V, and that 80% then go on to baccalauréat level (the objectives set by the Plan Law and the Education Guideline Law of 1989).

2.2.4.
Since the Guideline Law of December 1985, training can be acquired through three main channels.

(i) Vocational education offers skills to pupils at French level V and IV (see 2.2.26). In two years they can obtain a certificat d'aptitude professionnelle (CAP) or a brevet d'études professionnelles (BEP) and, in a four-year course, a baccalauréat professionnel, which gives a qualification in a given trade.

(ii) Through technological education, young people can achieve level IV or III qualifications. These are baccalauréats technologiques at level IV and diplômes universitaires de technologie (DUT) and brevets de techniciens supérieurs (BTS) at level III. The latter diplomas are obtained in a two-year course following the baccalauréat (in this respect they belong to the short-course higher education group). Technological education offers a qualification not so much in a given trade as in a technology.

(iii) Finally, higher education, apart from the level III technological educational channels, offers job-related courses that are accessible in its first, second or third cycles.

It should also be pointed out that these routes can be taken by both school pupils and students; in other words, in the case of the first two channels, they can take the path of alternance training, more particularly apprenticeship. Alternance training and apprenticeship give a young person the status of a wage-earner rather than a pupil or student, and involve the employer in the provision of training.

2.2.5.
One of the main weaknesses of French vocational education is that it is less than an educational system in the strict sense of the term than a set of offshoots from the general educational system that lead more or less directly to working life. What are known as 'classes d'orientation', in other words the foundation years in classes V, III and II, at the end of which pupils who cannot pursue their studies in general education are directed towards vocational education, are regarded in practice as crucial stages, and the rate of repeating the academic year there is high. The fact is that in France 'orientation' — a general term that implies guidance on the move to vocational education — is in fact regarded as being for people unable to take the prestigious road of academic education. Despite many reforms, the vocational streams are only slowly managing to create a more enlightened image of the education they provide.

(B) Vocational education

2.2.6.
Vocational education as we have defined it, in other words preparation for the CAP, BEP and baccalauréat professionnel, catered for 735 000 pupils in 1991, whereas general and technological education catered for over twice that figure, 1 616 000 (Education Ministry figures for 1991). The education is provided in lycées professionnels (LP — vocational lycées) which have taken over from the former collèges d'enseignement technique (CET — technical education schools). In 1990, there were 1 338 vocational lycées in the public sector and 832 in the private sector. In addition to these figures, however, there were 228 000 apprentices working for the same diplomas in 518 apprentice training centres (2.2.45).

2.2.7.
The certificat d'aptitude professionnelle testifies to skills related to the practice of a trade. This certificate can be taken in about 250 specialist subjects. The brevet d'études professionnelles (50 specialist subjects) covers a broader vocational field.

2.2.8.
In the early 1980s, these two diplomas had very low status. The CAP was too specialized, as a result of a Taylor-type concept of work, and it did not really fit in with employers' needs, whereas the BEP did not enjoy any real status on the labour market. As a result, vocational education was reformed by three measures.

(i) The first consisted of restricting the number of pupils who, as early as in class V, were directed towards vocational and craft channels of education for which they had not themselves opted. This step took the form of setting up fourth- and fifth-year technological education so that pupils could be directed there after class III.

(ii) The second was to renew the content of diplomas and to regroup some of them in different ways. This movement has not yet been completed but it should further reduce the number of CAPs.

(iii) The purpose of the third measure was to ensure that the vocational training channels led to qualifications and were no longer perceived as a dead end. This gave rise in 1982 to the first 'contrats d'adaptation' (adaptation contracts) for pupils who, following the BEP, come back to technological education, and in 1987 to the baccalauréats professionnels (vocational baccalaureates).

2.2.9.
Vocational baccalaureates reflect the needs of employers for a work-force with level IV skills. Whereas most baccalaureates, including baccalaureates in technological subjects, pave the way for higher education, the vocational baccalaureate is intended to prepare people for employment. There are 25 subjects that can be taken in the vocational baccalaureate. This new diploma is meeting with success, mainly due to three factors: it is part of alternance training, with 16 to 20 weeks over the two-year course being spent in a workplace; certain groups of subjects may be taken for the vocational baccalaureate only after a check has been made that there is a demand for those specialisms in the geographical catchment area of the school applying for those subjects; lastly, vocational baccalaureates must be recognized by the collective agreements for the trades for which they are a preparation.

2.2.10.
According to research on the first groups to take the vocational baccalaureate, this certificate rapidly leads to a job, with 93% of young people finding work in under six months. The effect is also lasting: two years after obtaining the diploma, unemployment among holders of the vocational baccalaureate was only 8% (compared with the unemployment rate for young people leaving at level V in 1986, two years later, i. e. 31%).

2.2.11.
The baccalauréat professionnel has, then, brought a breath of fresh air into vocational education, and this reform should be continued. Nevertheless, there is a fear that the rate of development for level V training will outrun the development of jobs. The future of level V diploma-holders is already less promising due to two factors: saturation in certain sectors, which are no longer able to absorb level V manpower (for example, CAPs in services-sector subjects offer few job outlets), and a raising of the level of skill demanded in jobs, the effect of which is to make the lowest level of qualification level IV or even level III rather than level V the standard for certain occupations.

(C) Technological education

2.2.12.
Under the heading of technological education, we include baccalauréats technologiques (technological baccalaureates) as well as the short streams of higher education leading to the diplôme universitaire de technologie (DUT — university diploma in technology) and the brevet de technicien supérieur (BTS — advanced technician's diploma).

2.2.13.
The baccalauréat technologique was introduced in the 1960s to replace the brevet de technicien. The twofold purpose was to supply trained people to the labour market and to train advanced technicians. The other brevets de technicien — some 20 today — have gradually been converted into technological or vocational baccalaureates. The technological baccalaureates break down into three major specialisms: industrial technologies, medico-social sciences and the services sector. In 1989, there were 112 978 passes in technological baccalaureates, more than half of them in the services-sector sections (as a comparison, 246 882 general baccalaureates and 23 955 vocational baccalaureates were passed in the same year — see table, paragraph 2.2.26.

2.2.14.
Technological baccalaureates have not really achieved their aims, since only one quarter of those passing this baccalaureate find permanent work immediately, the others topping it up by higher education, including university education. This observation has meant that teachers have concentrated on preparing their pupils for higher education rather than for a trade. The development in technological baccalaureates is part of the reason for the creation of the vocational baccalaureates, which are resolutely directed towards the working world.

2.2.15.
The muted success of technological baccalaureates contrasts with the success encountered by the two shorter cycles of higher education, i. e. the sections de techniciens supérieurs and the instituts universitaires de technologie.

2.2.16.
Higher technicians' sections were introduced in 1964. The number of pupils rose rapidly, from 68 000 in 1980 to 200 000 in 1991 (40% of them in the private sector). The BTS (brevet de technicien supérieur) offers 98 specialist subjects in four sectors: industrial, services, health and paramedical, and applied arts. The major role of the private sector is due to the success of this stream of training. Depending on the region and specialist subjects, there are 5 to 20 applications for each place offered in the public sector. According to the 'Centre d'études et de recherche sur l'emploi et les qualifications' (CEREQ), 93% of BTS holders find work in under a year and 74% in under six months. Job integration is better in the industrial than in the services sector, where certain BTS specialisms come up against competition from DUTs (diplômes universitaires de technologie).

2.2.17.
On their introduction in 1966, DUTs were intended gradually to replace the BTS, but in practice the two channels have developed along parallel lines. IUTs (instituts universitaires de technologie) cater for over 35 000 young people every year. To illustrate the attraction of this channel, it should be pointed out that in 1990 there were 37 000 places on offer at the instituts universitaires de technologie for 360 000 applicants. The figures demonstrate two factors: the success of the training in terms of content and finding a job (89% of diploma-holders find work in less than a year, 69% in less than six months), and the inadequacy of the facilities available. Due to pressure of demand from employers, establishments have set up a third year of studies to meet employers' needs for special types of job or specific duties.

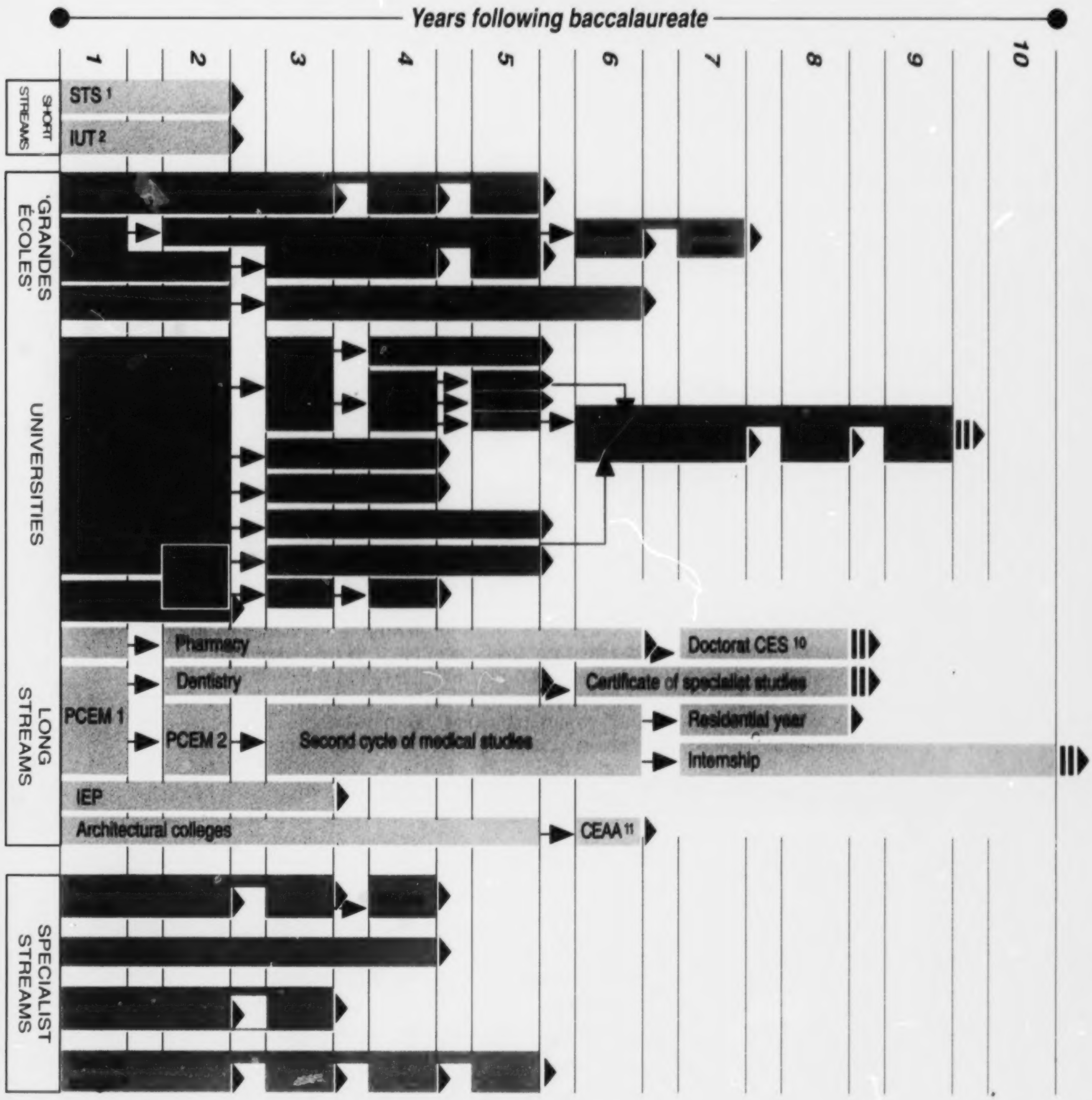
2.2.18.
The general quality of training provided by these short-stream courses, and employers' recognition of their quality as demonstrated by the statistics on diploma-holders finding work, have been an incentive to the authorities to try to change the flow of pupils after the baccalauréat. The aim is to direct towards a BTS or DUT those pupils who up to the present have supplemented their studies by taking the first cycle of general academic education at the university. It is a ministerial objective to double the number of young people catered for by the IUTs, and in the longer run to triple them, and also to double the numbers taking a BTS course. The aim is to reduce from 52 to 40% the proportion of baccalauréat-holders entering the first cycles of general university education.

2.2.19.
The problems raised by technological education, therefore, are essentially problems of direction, guidance and resources.

(D) Relating higher education more directly to jobs

2.2.20.
In 1990, 1.6 million students were in higher education, compared with 1.2 million in 1980, and by the year 2000 the two-million threshold should have been passed. In 1990, the 'Plan Universités 2000' was launched to meet this challenge, with a view to drawing and filling out the university map. In parallel with these quantitative problems, however, the Ministry has initiated a reform of general educational channels, their organization and content, to combat student failure in the first university cycles. Apart from redirecting students towards short-term courses, the stress has been on the need to relate higher education more closely to jobs.

Higher education in France


Years following baccalaureate
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
SHORT STREAMS
STS 1
IUT 2
'GRANDES ÉCOLES'
UNIVERSITIES
LONG STREAMS
Pharmacy
Doctorat CES 10
Dentistry
Certificate of specialist studies
PCEM 1
PCEM 2
Second cycle of medical studies
Residential year
Internship
IEP
Architectural colleges
CEAA 11
SPECIALIST STREAMS

Mainflow to the next level of education

Main exit points from the educational system

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[1] STS: advanced technicians' section. [2] IUT: University institute of technology. [3] Specialist institutes: IAE — Institute of business administration; IEJ — Institute of legal studies. [4] DESS: Diploma of advanced specialist studies. [5] DEA: Diploma of advanced studies. [6] MIAGE: Degree in computer studies applied to management. [7] MST: Degree in science and technology. [8] MSG: Degree in management science. [9] DEUST: Diploma in scientific and technical university studies. [10] CES: Certificate of advanced studies. [11] CEA: Certificate of advanced studies. [12] Specialist colleges: communications, computer technology, tourism, etc. [13] IUFM: University institute for the training of teachers [14] IUP: University institute of technology [15] DEUP: Diploma of vocational university studies.

Source: *Le guide des études supérieures, 1990*, special issue of *l'Etudiant*.

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2.2.21.
The 'vocationalization' of higher education began in the 1970s. 'Maîtrises de sciences et techniques' (MST), 'maîtrises de sciences de gestion' (MSG) and 'maîtrises de méthodes informatiques appliquées à la gestion' (MIAGE — higher diplomas in science and technology, management science and information technology applied to management) are channels to high-level studies. The students who are admitted, following stringent selection procedures, tackle theory and application. They have longer study hours, more intensive teaching than in conventional streams, compulsory job placements and close relations with employers. The creation of the DESS, a one-year course preparing young people holding a maîtrise for working life through research, and magistères, diplomas designed to compete with the diplomas offered by the grandes écoles, have made the three cycles more closely relevant to the working world. In 1984, the creation of 'diplômes d'études universitaires scientifiques et techniques' (DEUST — diplomas in scientific and technical studies) reflected the aim of relating the first university cycle more closely to working life. These highly specialized forms of training have found a place between the IUT and the BTS.

2.2.22.
Nevertheless, in 1991 the vocationalization of education accelerated with the creation of instituts universitaires professionnalisés (IUPs — vocational university institutes). IUPs will cater for students who have already taken a one-year course in higher education and offer them an opportunity to acquire the title of 'ingénieur-maître' in three years. The training, planned in cooperation with industry, will include a six months' practical placement in the three-year period and the study of at least two living languages. Half the tutors will be from industry. At the start of the 1991 academic year, 23 IUPs are opening in five fields: engineering, information and communications, administration, business and management. These 23 institutes will take about 3 500 students, and 70 additional IUPs are to be established in the academic year 1991/92. This will increase the number of students to close on 25 000, the longer-term aim being to cater for 100 000 students in these streams. IUPs will have to accept not only students but also young holders of a BTS or DUT having work experience.

2.2.23.
In addition to making its education more relevant to the working world, higher education is trying to meet the needs of employers by developing continuing training. Two major reforms are planned with this in mind.

2.2.24.
The first, dating back to 1989, is the introduction of new engineering training streams which have three main features: the predominance of continuing training; their target group, i. e. advanced technicians; and partnership between employers and higher education. The ultimate aim is to train 10 000 more engineers per year (at present France trains 14 000 engineers per year).

2.2.25.
The second ambitious reform, still in the planning stage, is the concept of validation and the embodiment in a diploma of job expertise or individual knowledge acquired, when issuing all higher education diplomas. This means that all routes at all levels of higher education will have to set up procedures for the recognition and validation of knowledge and expertise, and accept students entering through the channel of continuing training.

2.2.26.
These two reforms reflect the resolve to reduce the relative status of diplomas acquired in initial training in the career of French workers. With so many more opportunities to go back to study and obtain recognition of their working experience, young people should have an incentive to embark on occupational or job-related streams of education, and then to return later to their training route. The challenge is to combat university failure (it has been estimated that almost 20% of students enrolled for the first year of university drop out). Relating education to the working world, the opening-up of channels of education to continuing training and the redeployment of resources towards shorter courses of education are the three lines along which developments are moving in higher education.

Diplomas in secondary education, 1991

Brevet (metropolitan France)	542 741
Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle (CAP), 1990	273 933
Brevet d'étude professionnelle (BEP), 1990	162 553
Supplementary mentions (MC) 1990	9 526
Brevet professionnel (BP) 1990	13 367
Brevet de technicien (BT) 1990	8 392
General baccalaureate	**266 311**
Series A (humanities)	70 006
Series B (economics and social)	64 976
Series C (maths and physical science)	61 402
Series D (maths and natural science)	60 004
Series D (agricultural science and technology)	1 331
Series E (science and technology)	8 592
Technological baccalaureate	**113 993**
Series F (industrial)	31 757
Series F (service industries)	11 830
Series G (administrative and business technology)	70 035
Series H (computer technology)	371
Total — service industries	82 236
Vocational baccalaureate [1]	**24 602**

[1] Provisional results, metropolitan France.

Source: Ministry of Education.

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Higher education, 1990

Brevet de technicien supérieur	52 833
Diplôme universitaire de technologie	27 835
DEUG or DEUST first cycle diploma	88 446
Licence	74 325
Maîtrise de sciences et techniques	51 169
DESS or DEA	33 717
Doctorate	7 652
Medical diploma (health)	8 797
Engineering diploma	16 380

741 400 leaving the education system in 1989

Level VI	No vocational training	34 300
Level V bis	End of third cycle and dropping out of second short cycle	64 000
Level V	CAP or BEP level, dropping out of second short cycle	29 300
Level IV	Baccalauréat level, dropping out before level III	140 600
Level III	Baccalauréat level + two years' studies	95 800
Level II and I	With second and third higher-cycle diploma	115 400
Total		**741 400**

Source: Ministry of Education.

(E) Agricultural education

2.2.27.
Agricultural education occupies a separate place in the French educational system. Right from the start (1848) it came under the supervision of the Ministry of Agriculture. It still does so today, although there have been efforts to harmonize with the Education Ministry.

2.2.28.
Modern agricultural education is based on the Law of 2 August 1960 which makes a distinction between three cycles of education:

(i) education directed towards agriculture ('brevet d'apprentissage agricole' and 'brevet professionnel agricole'), training farm workers in the practice of their craft;

(ii) more specialized vocational training following compulsory education ('brevet professionnel agricole');

(iii) technical education to train technical agents, technicians and advanced technicians ('brevet de technicien agricole' and 'brevet de technicien supérieur agricole').

2.2.29.
The education is provided in agricultural collèges or lycées, to which pupils go when they leave class V. At the same time, agricultural higher education provides training for specialist engineers, horticultural engineers, engineers in the agricultural and food industries, engineers in agronomy and veterinary surgeons.

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2.2.30.
In 1968 the three cycles were regrouped as a short and a long cycle. The short cycle leads to the certificat d'aptitude professionnelle agricole (CAPA — certificate of agricultural vocational aptitude) in the three years following school up to class V, or the brevet d'études professionnelles agricoles (BEPA — diploma in vocational agricultural studies) in two years after class III. The long cycle, following class II, leads in two years to the brevet de technicien agricole à options (BTAO — agricultural technician's diploma with options). The BEPA is the minimum diploma required in order to run a farm business and, on this count, it receives State aid (without additional training). From 1976 onwards, young people in apprenticeship could study for the CAPA.

2.2.31.
In 1982 a debate was launched on a radical reform of agricultural education, which was to lead to the laws of 1984. The first of these laws, adopted in July, reformed public-sector agricultural education. The second, adopted in December of the same year, reformed the relations between the State and private agricultural education establishments. The two laws defined agricultural education as a specific component of the public-sector education and training service, to which private establishments could contribute under contract. The Ministry of Agriculture retained its supervisory powers, but the law set out the arrangements to harmonize its efforts with the education provided by the National Education Ministry. In the years that followed, this reform was backed up by a review of agricultural diplomas.

2.2.32.
Agricultural education is facing several challenges. In the first place it needs to develop training levels IV and III. By 1992, level IV vocational training must be the first level required for running a farm. It should also take into account the sweeping changes that are taking place in agriculture and reflect the trades that exist in the agri-food industry. Presented as a priority in the agriculture budget, agricultural education will call for substantial resources in order to meet these two challenges, even though agriculture is steadily declining in terms of its contribution to the economy in France.

Numbers in agricultural education from 1980 to 1988

	1980	**1988**
Technicien supérieur	6 022	12 506
BT and BAC	31 081	36 520
CAP and BEP	85 994	89 152
Total	123 097	138 178

Source: Ministry of Agriculture.

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Initial integration training

2.2.33.
Under this heading come apprenticeship and training measures for the 16 to 25 age group. Apprenticeship comes outside both the initial training system and the continuing training system and is a specific channel of vocational training. Training measures for the 16 to 25 age group, however, have been structured around the general continuing training system since 1983 due to the initiative of the social partners.

Introduction of training measures

2.2.34.
The first step taken by the authorities to counteract youth unemployment was in 1975, when 50 000 training courses (known as 'Granet' courses after the name of the then Minister) were to pave the way for the integration of young people into the working world. It was not until 1977, however, that the first general scheme was introduced, in the form of a 'pacte pour l'emploi'. Originally designed as a short-term arrangement, in fact it was extended twice and, after the political changes of 1981, taken up in the form of a 'plan avenir jeunes'. In content, these pactes were based on four measures:

(i) exemption from social security contributions (for employers recruiting young people under employment or apprenticeship contracts);
(ii) practical job placements in the workplace;
(iii) vocational training placements;
(iv) contracts of employment linking work and training.

Over a five-year period, it is estimated that these pactes have benefited over two million young people.

2.2.35.
Subsequently, the authorities added what were known as activités d'intérêt général (activities of general interest) to these four measures. Between 1985 and 1989, over 300 000 young people took advantage of the 'travail d'utilité' collective scheme (TUC — community service projects). These schemes were later replaced by 'contrats emploi-solidarité' (employment-solidarity contracts) (see 2.2.81).

2.2.36.
A brief review of the efforts to combat youth unemployment over more than 15 years might take the form of four observations:

(i) A feature of policy on the vocational integration of young people is its massive overall approach; it corresponds more to the social treatment of unemployment than a true policy on training or even on integration.
(ii) The various measures, except perhaps for the schemes aimed at 16 to 18-year-olds in 1982, did not really involve the more disadvantaged young people.
(iii) The high level of youth unemployment called for immediate measures and the need to find quick solutions did not help to provide a genuine training response to the problems of young people's qualifications and integration over the longer term.

(iv) Although the various measures did not reduce youth unemployment, at least they contained its growth. Manpower aged under 25 is still the group most affected by changes in the short-term economic situation. Youth unemployment, for example, after falling more rapidly than in other age groups in 1989, rose faster in 1991.

2.2.37.
In 1989, with the introduction of the crédit-formation (training entitlement) arrangement, an attempt was made to give purpose — the acquisition of a qualification — and coherence to all the measures directed towards young people (see 2.2.73). The agreement of 3 July 1991 and the Law of 31 December 1991 also replaced certain placement arrangements by contracts of employment. As of 1 March 1992, the measures for the integration and vocational training of young people therefore, were as follows:

(i) apprenticeship (see 2.2.38 to 2.2.50)

(ii) alternance training under a contract of employment (Contrat d'orientation, Contrat de qualification, Contrat d'adaptation) (see 2.2.51 to 2.2.72)

(iii) the Contrat local d'orientation (see 2.2.79 to 2.2.80)

(iv) the Contrat emploi-solidarité (see 2.2.81 to 2.2.84)

Current measures

(A) Apprenticeship

2.2.38.
Apprenticeship is served under a contract of employment between an apprentice and an approved employer. It includes training provided by both the employer and an apprentice training centre. It is funded by the apprenticeship levy paid by employers and by the regional councils.

2.2.39.
A bill, following an agreement reached by the social partners on apprenticeship of 8 January 1992 and a round-table discussion with all the institutions concerned with apprenticeship, was tabled before the National Assembly in the spring of 1992. This bill had several objectives:

(i) to involve trade sectors and employers more closely in young people's initial training;

(ii) to improve the position of apprentices, for example by increasing their earnings and taking the skills they have already acquired into account when determining the duration of their articles;

(iii) to adapt apprentice training centres and allow vocational lycées to accept apprentices;

(iv) to introduce regional-level negotiation on the development of apprenticeship, leading to agreements between the State and the regions;

(v) to extend the scope of the apprenticeship contract to the public sector.

(1) The apprenticeship contract

2.2.40.
The apprenticeship contract is a special type of contract of employment, the legal arrangements for which are laid down in the Labour Code (Articles L 117-1 *et seq.*). The purpose of the contract is to provide general theoretical and practical training for the young person so that he can obtain a vocational qualification validated by a diploma or an approved title. The contract must be made in writing and lodged with the Directorate of Labour for the département.

2.2.41.
Before employers can offer articles of apprenticeship, they must be approved as apprentice masters by the Prefect in the département. The normal duration of a contract is two years, although it may differ depending on the trade and the skills the young person acquires.

2.2.42.
During the period of the contract, the apprentice is an employee and, therefore, is entitled to the protection of labour legislation, in common with any other employee. He is entitled to a minimum wage, which is a given percentage of the national minimum wage (SMIC) and varies depending on his age and the stage of the contract. The scale is as follows:

AGE	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR
16 to 17	30 %	45 %
18 to 20	50 %	60 %
21 and over	65 %	75 %

(these earnings are gross; an apprentice's net wage is lower)

2.2.43.
After the two-month trial period, an apprenticeship contact can be ended only by mutual agreement or a decision by the Conseil des Prud'hommes (labour tribunal) in the event of a serious misdemeanour, one of the parties' repeated failure to comply with its obligations or the apprentice's unsuitability.

(2) Training

2.2.44.
Training is in the workplace and in a centre de formation des apprentis (CFA — apprentice training centre). The employer is required to provide practical training for the apprentice, by entrusting him with tasks or putting him in workstations where he can perform operations or do jobs that are in line with an annual progression of work decided by common agreement with the CFA. Some of the practical training, however, may take place in another workplace with agreement being reached between the employer and the host workplace on this issue.

2.2.45.
The employer is required to enrol the young person in an apprentice training centre providing instruction that corresponds to the training specified in that contract. Apprentice training centres are establishments set up by a convention between the State (in the case of centres with national recruitment) or a regional council or the body running the CFA (these centres do not have their own legal personality). This may be a local authority, a trade body, a chamber of commerce, an enterprise, a public or private educational establishment or any other corporate or individual body. These centres are subject to the educational supervision of the State and the technical and financial supervision of the State or the region that has signed the convention.

2.2.46.
The training delivered by the training centre may not be less than an average of 400 hours a year. If the qualification for which the apprentice is studying is at level IV (Bac. professionnel) or III (BTS), the total length of training may not be less than 1 500 hours. Since the introduction of the Law of 23 July 1987, it has been possible to prepare through the apprenticeship channel for higher diplomas at level V (up to this date, the training was solely for CAPs or BEPs). The apprentice training centre may delegate all or part of the training to a public or private-sector establishment, provided that the latter is under contract to the State. It may delegate part of the technological and practical instruction that it normally provides to another enterprise. This subcontracting assumes that the enterprise has been validated by inspection by the apprenticeship authority. The employer is under an obligation to apply for the young person to take examinations, and the latter is under an obligation to sit them.

(3) The funding of apprenticeship

2.2.47.
There are two main sources of funding for apprenticeship: the apprenticeship levy and the regional apprenticeship fund. In practice, the proceeds from the apprenticeship levy help to fund preliminary technological training, not just apprenticeship.

2.2.48.
The apprenticeship levy is payable by all employers engaged in industrial, commercial or craft activities (in other words the professions and agricultural enterprises are exempted). It is equivalent to 0.5% of the employer's annual gross wage bill. Out of this 0.5%:

(i) 20% must be set aside for apprenticeship. The employer has the choice between offsetting it against part of the apprentice's wages, making a payment to an apprentice training centre or, if neither applies, handing this amount over to the Treasury;

(ii) 9% is allocated to the 'Fonds interconsulaire de compensation' (where it is used to indemnify employers who pay low levies and have one or more apprentices and can therefore offset only a small part of their wages);

(iii) the remaining amounts are paid to agencies that provide preliminary technological training or, if there are no such agencies, to the Treasury.

2.2.49.
Each regional council administers its own regional apprenticeship fund, which receives funds out of sources transferred from the State (based on the principle that whenever the State transfers a responsibility it must also transfer the funds to fulfil that responsibility) and out of credits assigned by the regional council from its own resources. The regional apprenticeship fund is the financial tool which regions use to implement their apprenticeship policy. For example, the regional council may draw up an outline budget for apprenticeship, defining the forms of training and the apprenticeship training centres that will be granted funds.

2.2.50.
It should be pointed out that the bill tabled in the spring of 1992 provides for the contractual negotiation between the State and the region of apprenticeship objectives and funding.

(B) Alternance training

2.2.51.
Under the agreement of 26 October 1983, the social partners created three alternance training measures: the stage d'initiation à la vie professionnelle (period of introduction to working life), the contrat de qualification professionnelle (vocational qualification contract) and the contrat d'adaptation (adaptation contract). These measures were introduced on a general scale by the Law of 24 February 1984. The national interindustry agreement of 3 July 1991 and the Law of 31 December 1991 replaced the stage d'initiation à la vie professionnelle by the contrat d'orientation and made a few changes to the content and practical procedures of other contracts.

(1) The contracts

(a) The contrat d'orientation (guidance contract)

2.2.52.
This contract is aimed at young people aged 22 and over who do not hold a diploma of technological or vocational education, and who have not completed their second cycle of general education. This contract may be extended to young people aged under 26 who are finding genuine difficulties in entering the working world, whatever their levels of qualification. This contract should help young people to find their footing in working life by promoting vocational guidance for young people through practical experience in the workplace.

2.2.53.
The contrat d'orientation is a special type of contract of employment for a period of three to six months. It is non-renewable, and may not be offered as an alternative to temporary or permanent jobs within an enterprise. It includes active vocational guidance measures, which may not be for less than 32 hours a month. The contract may take the form of:

(i) general retraining modules in a training body inside or outside the workplace;

(ii) vocational training modules linked with the job being done by the young person, in a training centre inside or outside the workplace;

(iii) an audit of skills achieved, conducted by a body outside the workplace, provided that the young person agrees.

2.2.54.
During the contract, the young person is an employee, receiving a wage of 30% of the national minimum wage in the case of young people aged 16 to 17, 50% in the 18 to 20 age group and 65% in the case of those aged 21 and over. The employer is exempted from the employer's social security contributions. The young person may terminate the guidance contract at any time to take up a job or to go on a course that leads to a qualification.

(b) The contrat de qualification (qualification contract)

2.2.55.
The qualification contract is for young people aged under 26 who hope to supplement their initial training by job-related training, either because they do not have a recognized qualification or because the qualification they do have does not offer access to the jobs on offer. In order to sign a qualification contract, employers must be approved by the authorities, i. e. the direction départementale du travail, de l'emploi et de la formation professionnelle (département-level directorate of labour, employment and vocational training). This approval is obtained after lodging an application giving a copy of the training convention, a report on the consultation of employee representatives and a statement of the number of young people who may be taken on and the tutors' qualifications.

2.2.56.
The qualification contract is a special kind of contract of employment for a period of six to 24 months. The employer undertakes to provide a job for the young person during the term of the contract as well as training that will help the youngster to acquire vocational training validated by a title or diploma of technological education, recognized by a collective agreement or as defined by the employer/union committee for employment in that particular branch of industry.

2.2.57.
General, vocational and technological instruction imparted during the period of the contract must take up at least 25% of the total duration of the contract. This instruction is covered by a convention with a training agency (which implies that the training takes up 25% of the time and is outside the workplace). Training takes place during working hours and must not result in the young person having to work longer than the normal hours of work in the workplace.

2.2.58.
Throughout the period of the contract, the young person is a wage-earner and entitled to all rights conferred by laws, regulations or conventions to young wage-earners, to the extent that they are compatible with his status as young trainee. He receives remuneration specified as a percentage of the national minimum wage, based on the following scale:

AGE	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR
16 to 17	30 %	45 %
18 to 20	50 %	60 %
21 and over	65 %	75 %

The employer is exempted from payment of social security contributions on the trainee's wages.

(c) The contrat d'adaptation (adaptation contract)

2.2.59.
The adaptation contract, which is for a definite or indefinite period, is reached between an employer and a young person aged under 26. The aim is to provide the young person with training that will help him to adapt to a job or a type of job. If the contract is for a definite period, it must be for a term of between six months and a year; if it is for an indefinite period, the adaptation period is for over one year.

2.2.60.
The training provided is alternance, combining general, vocational and technological instruction given by training agencies, together with the acquisition of vocational skills by engaging in one or more vocational activities in a workplace. The general, vocational or technological subjects are taught during working hours and outside the workplace. Under the contract, training must be for a period of 200 hours, unless more time is allowed by the 'organisme mutualisateur agréé' (see 2.2.67).

2.2.61.
Throughout the contract, or the adaptation period if the contract is for an indefinite term, the young person is a wage-earner and enjoys all the benefits granted by law, regulation or agreement to other wage-earners, to the extent that they are compatible with his status as a young trainee. He receives remuneration of at least 80 % of the wage laid down by the collective agreement, which must itself be no less than the national guaranteed minimum wage (SMIC). There is no exemption from social security contributions on this remuneration.

(2) Tutorat (tutoring)

2.2.62.
The national interindustry agreement of 3 July 1991 laid down the conditions for taking on young people in the workplace. In particular, it covered the provision of information to employee representatives and the appointment of a 'tutor'.

2.2.63.
The tutor is chosen by the employer, on a voluntary basis, from among the qualified employees within the enterprise, with due regard for his level of qualification, which must be at least the same as that of the young person. In small concerns, the tutor may be the employer himself.

2.2.64.
The tutor monitors the work of at most three young people, irrespective of their contracts (which may include apprenticeship). His terms of reference are to welcome, help, inform and guide young people during their time in the workplace and ensure that their time is properly employed. On conditions laid down by the contract, he provides liaison between the employees in the workplace who are involved in the young person's acquisition of job skills and the training agency. The employer must allow the tutor the time he needs to perform his duties. The tutor is prepared for tutoring and if necessary receives specific training.

(3) The funding of alternance training

2.2.65.
All workplaces must spend the 0.1% supplementary levy (which is in addition to the apprenticeship levy) on training or pay it over to the Treasury, and all enterprises with a workforce of 10 or more must use or pay to the Treasury 0.3 % of their annual wage bill to finance alternance training.

(a) The direct use of the 0.1 and 0.3 % levies

2.2.66.
All employers accepting young people under an alternance training measure may deduct fixed amounts from the two levies intended to finance that training, based on the following scale: FF 50 (approximately ECU 7.5) per training hour for young people taken on under a contrat d'orientation or contrat d'adaptation, and FF 60 (approximately ECU 9) per hour's training for young people taken on under a contrat de qualification. In view of the lengthy period of training, such direct use of their levies is of benefit only to large concerns having sizeable levies to pay. In the case of other concerns — and small and medium-sized firms are those which have most often resorted to alternance training — it is more to their advantage to avail themselves of the 'mutualization' arrangement by making payments to an approved agency.

(b) Payment to an Organisme mutualisateur agréé (accredited mutual funding agency)

2.2.67.
Two types of agencies may be approved for the receipt of funds allocated towards alternance training: fonds d'assurance formation (FAF — training insurance funds) and associations de formation (ASFO — training associations).

2.2.68.
FAFs are agencies set up under a collective agreement with the object of administering the monies that employers are obliged to devote to the funding of vocational training. The conditions governing their creation and operation are regulated and supervised by the authorities (see 2.1.18).

2.2.69.
ASFOs are training agencies that have been set up by vocational groups. They can be accredited as OMAs provided that they set up a conseil de perfectionnement paritaire, in other words a joint improvement council with representatives of employers and employees responsible for administering the monies.

2.2.70.
At present, there are over 200 approved agencies, OMAs, payable by employers located within their field of responsibility (this may be occupational, geographical, etc.). They pool the amounts received and use them to:

(i) inform employers and young people about the three measures;

(ii) reimburse employers who resort to one of the three alternance arrangements. The amounts reimbursed are FF 50 per hour's training in the case of contrats d'orientation and contrats d'adaptation, and FF 60 per training hour for contrats de qualification. These refunds are at a fixed rate; in other words, they apply irrespective of the amounts actually incurred by the employer for the training of young people. The mutual funding agency may adjust the amount for which responsibility is taken under contrat de qualification.

(iii) take the work of training tutors, who may be employees or heads of enterprises where the workforce is less than 10 people;

(iv) offset overheads.

2.2.71.
Through this mutual funding, employers having fairly low levies to pay can have recourse to alternance training measures, in particular the contrat de qualification, for which they usually obtain refunds in excess of actual disbursements. This system of funding alternance training met with difficulties due to massive recourse to the three measures in 1986 and 1987, and so the social partners set up Agefal (Association pour la gestion des fonds des formations en alternance — Association for the management of alternance training funds) which, at the national level, accepted responsibility for establishing the necessary transfers between OMAs in surplus and those in deficit.

(c) Payment to the Treasury

2.2.72.
Employers not availing themselves of one of the two options for spending the 0.1% supplementary levy and the 0.3% 'youth' levy must pay the amounts over to the State. The 0.3% levy must be paid by 15 September of the current year at the latest. It is based on the wage bill for the previous year, adjusted for the current year. The 0.1% supplementary levy is paid to the Treasury with the apprenticeship levy, in other words on 5 April of the following year.

(C) Crédit formation individualisé pour les jeunes (CFI-jeunes — personalized training entitlement for young people)

2.2.73.
The term 'crédit formation' covers two concepts which followed one after another over a period of time, and which today overlap: training entitlement was first of all a principle for the organization of measures aimed at the 100 000 young people who leave the school system every year without qualifications. Following the Law of July 1990, crédit formation was defined by the Labour Code as the means whereby all workers may exercise their recognized right to a qualification. Since then, crédit formation has been accessible to wage earners and adults without skills. In this section, we shall discuss only crédit formation for young people, since the implementation of crédit formation for employees and adults will be discussed in the sections devoted to the training of employees in the former case and to State measures in the latter (see 2.3.3 and 2.3.47).

2.2.74.
The implementation of crédit formation individualisé pour les jeunes dates back to 1989. The designation chosen, 'personalized training entitlement for young people', summarizes the principles underlying its conception: the right of all young people without skills to access a personalized training itinerary leading to a level V qualification. Crédit formation reflects three ambitions:

(i) to give young people skills,

(ii) to provide an incentive to training agencies to individualize their training,

(iii) to set up an administrative organization capable of bringing the measure into being.

(1) Administrative organization

2.2.75.
The need to set up an administrative organization specifically for the CFI is related to the desire to mobilize the various parties' involvement in the integration and training of young people so that they aim at the same objective and work as closely as possible with the young people concerned. The unit chosen was the 'training area', corresponding either to a district of a town or to an employment catchment area (the manner in which areas are broken down is the responsibility of the Préfet de département). In fact, 400 training areas have been identified.

(2) Personalized training itinerary for young people

2.2.76.
Any young person without a job skill or who, despite having a level V qualification, has been unable to find employment and is seeking another qualification, is eligible for the CFI. To obtain it, he must go to one of the young people's reception centres, which then designates a correspondent who will follow the young person's progress.

2.2.77.
There are several measures that can be mobilized to help a young person acquire the qualification he seeks. In addition to the modular training courses subsidized by the State, alternance training (contrat d'orientation, contrat de qualification, contrat d'adaptation), the apprenticeship contract, the contrat local d'orientation or the contrat emploi-solidarité may be used. Training entitlement, therefore, is not so much a measure as an overall scheme for enabling young people to acquire qualifications through existing structures and measures.

2.2.78.
A training itinerary may, for example, start with pre-skill modules and continue with an alternance training contract, or alternatively it may start with a contrat emploi-solidarité and continue with skill acquisition modules in a training centre. At the heart of the scheme is the individualization of training routes and content.

(D) The contrat local d'orientation (local guidance contract)

2.2.79.
The contrat local d'orientation is directed towards youngsters aged 16 and 17 who have at best completed the second cycle of general, technological or vocational secondary education without obtaining the diploma for which they have been studying and without having a diploma of technological or vocational education.

2.2.80.
The contrat local d'orientation has the same features as the contrat d'orientation, with two differences. The first is that it may be entered into only by public structures other than the State or private, non-profit-making structures. The second is that the funding of part of the remuneration and all the hours of foundation study are taken over by the State rather than being contributed by employers. With these two exceptions, the conditions for the contrat d'orientation apply to the contrat local d'orientation (see 2.2.52 et seq.).

(E) The contrat emploi-solidarité (CES — employment-solidarity contract)

2.2.81.
This contract, which was set up in 1990, replaced the travaux d'utilité collective (TUC — community service projects — see 2.2.35). It is directed towards young people aged 18 to 25, particularly those with a level V qualification, but also to the long-term unemployed aged over 25, those receiving the minimum integration income and unemployed people aged over 50.

2.2.82.
The objective is to help people with special difficulty in obtaining work to engage in a part-time activity under a contract of part-time employment. That activity must meet community needs not being met elsewhere, which means that such a contract is not a measure offering qualifications.

2.2.83.
These contracts may be granted only by local authorities, public establishments, non-profit-making associations and foundations.

2.2.84.
The contract is for three to 12 months, or in exceptional cases 24 months. The working week is 20 hours, and the pay is equal to the minimum wage (SMIC), disbursed by the employer agency. The State refunds 85 % of the remuneration, which is also exempted from social security contributions and tax. During the contract, training may be arranged for the young person during the period of the week when he is not working. The young person is entitled not to remuneration but to a State grant of FF 22 (approximately ECU 3) per hour up to a maximum of 400 hours (the average duration being 200 hours).

A review of measures for the integration of young people

(1) Apprenticeship

2.2.85.
The number of young people entering apprenticeship declined in the early 1980s, but started to rise again from 1986 on. Since that year, approximately 130 000 contracts have been signed each year (129 310 in 1990), covering a total of 230 000 young people, 71% of whom are boys.

2.2.86.
Outside the agricultural sector, 518 apprenticeship training centres (CFAs) were known to exist in 1989, the breakdown being as follows:

278 CFAs run by private agencies (41% of apprentices)
73 CFAs run by Chambres de métiers (36% of apprentices)
61 CFAs run by public education establishments (8% of apprentices)
56 CFAs run by local authorities (6% of apprentices)
38 CFAs run by the Chambers of Commerce (8% of apprentices)
12 CFAs run under a national convention (1% of apprentices).

The agricultural sector has 113 apprentice training centres (93 of which are attached to public-sector agencies, 30 to private agencies).

2.2.87

The breakdown by diploma in 1989 was as follows:

Level V:	CAP	226 268
	Brevet Professionnel	3 673
	BEP	1 963
Level IV:	Bac professionnel	1 912
Level III:	BTS	242

2.2.88.
There are 450 000 employers accredited as apprentice masters, but only 180 000 have one or more apprentices.

The main sectors taking apprentices are:

Building industry	12,7%
Business and retailing	12,6%
Baking, patisserie	11,5%
Personal care	10,9%
Engineering	10,2%
Butchery & slaughterhouse work	8,1%
Other food trades	8,1%

A point of note is the total absence of apprenticeship from the industrial sector.

2.2.89.
The purpose of relaunching apprenticeship (initiated by the social partners and the government), and its extension to the public sector was to double the number of apprentices over a period of five years.

(2) Alternance training

Trends in the number of contracts

YEAR	Stage d'initiation à la vie professionnelle	Contrat d'adaptation	Contrat de qualification	TOTAL
1985	49 854	21 226	3 031	74 111
1986	175 112	172 825	19 247	367 184
1987	323 268	250 629	38 566	612 453
1988	289 405	99 431	65 373	454 209
1989	90 660	118 131	92 375	301 166
1990	51 983	113 022	101 706	266 711

Source: Ministry of Labour.

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2.2.90.
Over six years' practical experience of alternance training, the contrat de qualification has proved a genuine training measure, whereas the contrat d'adaptation has usually been just an aid for recruitment. The SIVP (Stage d'initiation à la vie professionnelle) has helped hundreds of thousands of young people to acquire experience in the workplace, but it has not fulfilled the objective of their integration in the working world and on the whole has attracted a group of people who already have skills. Without avoiding the traps predicted by some people at the time, the measure was adopted. Its replacement by the contrat d'orientation (guidance contract) from 1992 on (see 2.2.52) is, therefore, a logical step.

(3) Crédit formation individualisé (CFI — personalized training entitlement)

2.2.91.
Over a two-year period, the CFI has led to 224 425 young people being taken on, 173 055 of whom entered into a personalized training entitlement commitment and 105 000 who have benefited from a skills audit. As a preliminary step for young people, then, the measure can be regarded as achieving its objectives, especially as it has in fact catered for young people with a low level of skills (over 50% of the young people have a level VI qualification).

2.2.92.
The CFI, however, has to an extent been a victim of its own success. It has accepted young people with a very low level of education and the training periods have proved to be longer than expected. Because they have a right to a skill, the policy on admission to the scheme has been non-selective, this swelling the numbers. Nor has the scheme produced the results expected as regards qualifications (only 5 500 level V certificates have been obtained and 19 000 partial validations).

2.2.93.
As a result, an assessment was produced in the summer of 1991 showing that the right to a skills audit, personalized monitoring, the individualization of training and the search for new validation procedures were achievements that should be retained, but at the same time there should be better administration of admission to schemes and greater diversification of training routes, which too often consisted of training courses in training agencies and were too seldom conducted as part of alternance training. A twofold problem was put to the CFI: is access to a skill the best solution for a young person's integration if it cannot be rapidly achieved; and how can economic operators be made to take a more active part in this scheme?

2.2.94.
The government has therefore embarked on a two-pronged reform of the measure. In the first stage, it was restated that employment is the priority aim, and a skill is just a means of achieving employment. Secondly, a 'programme de préparation active à la qualification et à l'emploi' (PAQUE) is to be set up by the summer of 1992. This programme of active preparation for qualifications and employment is directed towards young people who cannot have direct access to a measure designed to impart skills because they lack basic education or have social difficulties. A tender has been launched by the State with a view to selecting some 350 agencies catering for an average of 200 young people (a total of 70 000 training places). Under the proposed measures, basic education must be combined with the active discovery of several trades so that young people can make a choice of careers. Special funding has been allocated by the State towards implementing this programme.

(4) The contrat emploi-solidarité (employment-solidarity contract)

2.2.95.
Because it was being replaced by the contrat local d'orientation for young people aged 16 and 17, the contrat emploi-solidarité is likely to affect only 250 000 young people in 1992, compared with 400 000 in 1991. These contracts, under a programme to combat long-term unemployment, are due to be extended and developed in certain sectors (the environment, social leadership, urban security, health, transport, tourism, etc.).

Vocational guidance for young people

2.2.96.
Young people have access to vocational guidance services within the school environment or in agencies outside the national education system.

(A) Vocational guidance in the school

2.2.97.
Guidance is provided in the school environment via the 'Office national d'information sur les enseignements et les professions' (Onisep) and 'Centres d'information et d'orientation' (CIO).

2.2.98.
Onisep is a public-sector establishment that comes under the Ministry of Education. This national information board produces booklets and other literature on channels of study and outlets. The documents may be consulted at documentation and information centres in schools, in CIOs and in regional delegations of Onisep.

2.2.99.
The Centres d'information et d'orientation (CIO — information and guidance centres) come under the Ministry of Education. Today there are over 580 such centres. Most of their work is done within schools, although they also cater for any kind of group. This extended access, moreover, has caused the centres problems with resources and staff training. A few years ago only 5% of queries were from adults, whereas today (at least in the case of some centres located in larger towns) the majority of users are in fact jobless people. The centres offer various services: preliminary contact, provision of information and documentation, individual discussions with a guidance counsellor, etc. In particular they have developed a system of self-documentation on trades and training courses. In 1991, there was one guidance counsellor per 1 500 school pupils. One pupil out of three at collèges consults a guidance counsellor, one lycée pupil out of four, one vocational lycée pupil out of six, but four out of five class III pupils go to see a counsellor (together with class V, class III is a key year for academic guidance).

2.2.100.
Among the measures implemented by the Ministry of Education, of special interest are those introduced by the Dispositif d'insertion des jeunes de l'Education Nationale (DIJEN — educational system scheme for the integration of young people). Set up in 1986, this scheme is directed towards young people leaving school at baccalaureate or lower level. Its objective is to suggest opportunities for guidance, training, information, aid and counsel to young people,

and encourage them to renew contact with their former schools. The arrangements are flexible, but they are set up in each school establishment within the educational system.

2.2.101.
In 1990/91, 105 400 young people renewed contact with their schools for the purpose of guidance. Over 40 000 of them took advantage of one or more measures under the scheme. Over a quarter returned to education to take initial training. The others could be directed towards different placement or alternance training arrangements. No guidance could be provided for 9% of the young people.

2.2.102.
It is apparent that the demand for information and guidance in the school environment, especially information on careers, is far from being satisfied, accentuating the widely criticized gap between the educational environment and the working world. To bring the two sides closer together, the government has announced its intention of arranging systematic careers information meetings in schools. The information is to be provided by practitioners, with the particular aim of making trade in the building and manufacturing industries better known.

(B) Vocational guidance outside the school

2.2.103.
One of the major developments of the 1980s was the systematic incorporation of guidance into the French vocational training system, and it was young people who were the first beneficiaries of this development.

2.2.104.
In 1981, B. Schwartz submitted a report to the Prime Minister on the integration of young people into society and the working world, stressing the urgent need for contact, information and guidance agencies. These bodies, he said, should bring together all the parties involved in social and occupational integration. He proposed the creation of missions locales (local missions) in the form of a multi-disciplinary scheme staffed by people made available both by the civil service and by local authorities. The ordinance of 26 March 1982 took up this proposal and created what were known as permanences d'accueil, d'information et d'orientation (PAIO — standing agencies for contact, information and guidance) agencies and missions locales.

2.2.105.
PAIOs are sited in support agencies (GRETA, youth information centres, local agency for employment, the town hall, association, etc.) in receipt of aid from the State, and on occasion in local authorities. They are expected to cater for young people aged 16 to 18 and possibly aged 18 to 25. PAIOs inform young people about opportunities for taking up training, to include training measures and the competent agencies. A protocol agreement with ANPE sets out procedures for cooperation between these two bodies. At present there are 541 PAIOs employing 1 500 people.

2.2.106.
Local missions are set up in the form of an association. Unlike PAIOs, therefore, they have their own independent legal existence. They bring together all the partners involved in integration: elected officials, the authorities, economic and social partners, associations, etc. Local missions are set up by local authorities, after the délégation interministerielle à l'insertion des jeunes (interministerial delegation for young people's integration) have considered the application. They are financed jointly by the authority or authorities setting up the project. State and the local missions cater for all young people aged 16 to 25 who have left school without a contract of employment or apprenticeship. They are authorized to cover all the problems of integration encountered by a young person, i. e. training and employment, but also housing, health and everyday life. In 1991, there were 196 local missions. About 30 additional local missions should have been set up the end of that year, and 87 départements have at least one local mission.

2.2.107.
PAIOs and local missions have welcomed and monitored 450 000 young people in 1991, of whom:

78% were aged over 18
52% were girls
54% were young people with an educational level lower than CAP

2.2.108.
Among the agencies operating in the vocational guidance of young people, of special note are the centre d'information et documentation jeunesse (CIDJ) and its regional centres (CRIJ). Set up by the Secrétariat d'État à la jeunesse et aux sports in 1969, this network of 25 regional centres, plus youth information points and youth information bureaux, has as its terms of reference to welcome and inform young people in every field of daily life. Nevertheless, its work essentially focuses on the production and distribution of information sheets on trades and training courses.

2.2.109.
Finally, young people can also be catered for and guided by agencies which, although not tailored exclusively to their needs, can help them because of other aspects of their position (ANPE, for example, in the case of job-seekers, centres d'information sur les droits des femmes (information centres for women's rights) in the case of girls, the CIOs that have already been mentioned, which provide information to school-leavers, etc.

2.2.110.
According to the Ministry of Labour, the fact that there are so many operators and schemes may paradoxically make it harder to obtain information, training and employment, especially for the more disadvantaged youngsters. The ministerial circular of 3 September 1991 created what were known as 'crossroads' — carrefours — for youth employment and training. The aim of these crossroads was to mobilize all the schemes targeted at young people as far as possible. Above all, they should help to strengthen the link between training and employment. A carrefour is not an additional agency but a meeting point and a forum for cooperation among local structures. It should help to produce more effective routes towards integration into the working world. In 1992, there were 400 carrefours in operation.

2.3. Continuing vocational training

2.3.1.
This section covers all the measures and schemes directed towards people who have already embarked upon their working lives. As we indicated when reviewing the background to the French system of vocational training, its special feature is that France has a continuing training system which has given rise to the intensive production of regulations.

2.3.2.
The French continuing training system tends to operate on the basis of categories of beneficiaries. The status of the person aspiring to training determines the legal framework in which that training is provided. There are three main categories: employees in the private sector, public-sector employees and job-seekers. In the first case, training is the responsibility of the employer, in the second the administration and in the third case the authorities (the State and the regions). There is, however, an exception to this distinction: under employment policy, the State is also involved in the training of private-sector employees, as are the regions under regional development policy. This description of continuing training provision will end with social advancement measures and vocational guidance for adults.

Training for private-sector employees

2.3.3.
Employees have access to training either on their own initiative, pursuant to their statutory right to absence (2.3.4 to 2.3.26), or on the initiative of the employer under the training plan (2.3.29 to 2.3.34).

(I) Entitlements to absence

2.3.4.
All employees are entitled to absent themselves from work on individual training leave to take vocational training. This is the main right to absence although mention should also be made of the right to leave for a skills audit as well as other specific forms of leave for employees.

(a) Individual training leave for employees with an indefinite-term contract

2.3.5.
Although the principle of individual training leave was laid down in 1966, the conditions under which it could be implemented were not fulfilled until the Law of 1971. At first, employees taking individual training leave were unpaid during that period, but from 1971 on they were paid by the employer and then by the State. The condition for this remuneration was that an employee should take a course accredited by the State. This was not easy to implement and the range of choices was limited, which meant that recourse to individual training leave gradually became more rare.

The social partners relaunched the arrangement under the agreement of 21 September 1982, which set up a system of funding external to the workplace, that could take responsibility for any employee. The Law of 24 February 1984 institutionalized this system, which made a distinction between the right to absence and the possibility of obtaining funding.

(1) The right to leave

2.3.6.

The congé individuel de formation (CIF — individual training leave) is defined by the Labour Code as a right to absence whereby any employee, whatever the size of the enterprise for which he works, can take the training of his own choice, on his own initiative and on an individual basis, as distinct from the forms of training covered by the employer's training plan (Article L 931-1 of the Labour Code).

2.3.7.

The employee has to fulfil two conditions before exercising this right. He has to show that he has two years' length of service as an employee, at least one of them within the enterprise. If he has already taken individual training leave, he must wait for a given period before submitting a further application. This period depends on the duration of the first individual training leave, but it ranges from six months to six years.

2.3.8.

An employee satisfying these conditions makes an application for authorization for absence to his employer, who may not refuse to grant the leave if the employee in fact meets the conditions. The employer may defer the leave only in two cases:

(i) if 2% of employees are already absent on individual training leave. The leave is then deferred until one or more of the other employees return to work;

(ii) if the employer feels that the employee's absence would detract from the satisfactory operation of the enterprise. In this case the employer may defer the leave by a maximum of nine months.

2.3.9.

The right to absence applies only to leave of one year or less if it is full-time, or 1 200 hours if it is part-time. If more leave is needed, all the employee can do is to ask for authorization for absence, which the employer may agree to or refuse at his own discretion.

2.3.10.

During individual training leave, the contract of employment is suspended. Nevertheless, the CIF period is regarded as equivalent to working time as regards seniority rights. When the training leave is ended, the employee has the right to return to the enterprise. The employer is under no obligation to recognize the qualification he has acquired.

(2) Provision for funding

2.3.11.

Employers with a work-force of 10 or more must set aside 0.15% of their wage bill each year towards financing individual training leave. This amount is paid by 1 March to a joint management/union body for the management of individual training leave: organisme paritaire de gestion du congé individuel de formation (Opacif).

2.3.12.

These bodies were set up by the agreement of 21 September 1982. It may be an existing Fonds d'assurance formation (training insurance fund) that has applied for State agrément (accreditation) as a provider of training for those on individual training leave (this accreditation authorizes them to collect the amounts from employers). Alternatively it may be a fund set up specifically to administer the training leave, as in the case of organismes paritaires régionaux du CIF (Fongecif — regional joint management/union bodies administering individual training leave in a group at industries sector). They take applications from all employees who have no Opacif in their own branch of activity.

2.3.13.
An Opacif receiving an application from an employee may refuse only if that application does not come within the legal framework of the CIF or if it does not have the necessary funds to meet all the applications that have been presented at the same time. It is then entitled to define the priorities by which it will determine what applications it will accept. Such priorities are established in the light of criteria such as the nature of training courses, the socio-occupational category, the size of enterprise, etc.

2.3.14.
The body accepts responsibility for an applicant's remuneration and the cost of his training, travel and accommodation. The amount funded is 80 or 90 % of the remuneration received, depending whether the training being taken is a priority. If the training is for a period of more than year or 1 200 hours, in the second year the body finances 60 % (all these percentages apply provided that they do not mean that the remuneration paid is lower than twice the level of the national minimum wage). An Opacif that agrees to fund someone on individual training leave reimburses the employer, who advances payment.

2.3.15.
The State contributes towards the funding of individual training leave under agreements which it reaches with the Opacifs or Copacif. Copacif is a joint management/union body responsible for interpreting the legislation and regulations on individual training leave, as well as negotiating with the authorities in the interindustry sector.

The additional funding provided by the State is designed to enable such bodies to accept responsibility for long-term training and forms of training of benefit to the region, and also to promote the acceptance of applications made by people employed in enterprises with a work-force of fewer than 10.

2.3.16.
The State also helps to fund individual training leave by implementing crédit formation for private-sector employees. Any application for individual training leave where the aim is to obtain a level V qualification gives the applicant the right to the funding of a skills audit and also to aid from the State. This State aid, which is equivalent to 50 % of the cost of the funding, is paid to Opacif. In 1990, the first year in which the measure was implemented, over 5 000 crédit formation start-ups in the individual training leave framework were recorded by Copacif (which covers about 75 % of individual leave applicants).

(b) Individual training leave for other employees

2.3.17.
As defined by law, individual leave is directed more specifically towards employees having an indefinite contract of employment, whether full-time or part-time. In practice, employees with 'interim' contracts, i. e. contracts of employment for a specified term or temporary contracts, used to be excluded from benefits under the measure. The social partners laid down special arrangements whereby these two categories of employees became eligible for individual training leave. The Law of 31 December 1991 extended these new rights.

(1) Employees with a contract of employment for a specified period

2.3.18.

Any person who can show that he has been employed for a consecutive or non-consecutive period of 24 months over the past five years, at least four months of which (consecutive or non-consecutive) have been under a term contract over the past 12 months, may apply for his training to be funded under the individual training leave measure. The application for individual leave must be made to the Opacif competent for the enterprise in which the employee has performed his latest contract of employment, and the training takes place outside any contract of employment. The beneficiary receives remuneration of 80 to 90% of his former salary.

2.3.19.

Employers fund this specific individual leave by means of a 1% contribution on wages paid to employees recruited under term contracts, which is in addition to other contributions payable by the employer for continuing training. This new right of access to individual training leave was set up by the social partners in their agreement of 24 March 1990, and established generally by the Laws of 12 July 1990 and 31 December 1991.

(2) Temporary workers

2.3.20.

To cater for the particular status of temporary workers, the social partners laid down the conditions for access to individual training leave in the national occupational agreement of 9 June 1983. These conditions were restated in the agreement of 24 March 1990 which, moreover, increased the CIF contribution paid by temporary work enterprises to 0.25 % of the wage bill (compared with 0.15 % under the ordinary law system).

2.3.21.

Temporary workers are entitled to individual training leave as soon as they have done 560 hours' work in their occupation, including 360 hours in the temporary employment enterprise from which the application for leave has been made, over the 12 months preceding the date of that application. The period that must elapse between two training leaves is six months. The temporary work employer may refuse an application only if that application and the person's departure occur during the same period of work. The training insurance fund for temporary workers is competent to take over the funding.

(c) A review of the individual training leave measure

2.3.22.

Opacifs have taken responsibility for 20 000 CIF applications per year, i. e. 70% of those presented. This rate is tending to decline, with applications rising more rapidly than acceptances. To prevent bottlenecks in the system, the social partners decided to raise the contribution from 0.10 to 0.15% of the wage bill in 1991, and to increase this contribution again to 0.20% in 1993. The objective is to fund 35 000 individual training leaves per year. On average, an individual training leave lasts 850 hours at a cost of FF 100 000 (approximately ECU 15 000). In other words, the training usually consists of long courses leading to a qualification, in sharp contrast to the average duration of courses taken under the training plan, i. e. 60 hours.

(d) Leave for a skills audit

2.3.23.
Any employee showing that he has worked for five years as an employee, at least 12 months within the enterprise, is entitled to absence for a skills audit. The purpose of these measures is to enable workers to analyse their vocational and personal skills, ability and motivation so that they can draw up a career plan and, where appropriate, a training plan for themselves.

2.3.24.
Absence for this purpose may not exceed 24 working hours, continuous or non-continuous. The cost of the skills audit and payment of remuneration to the employee is borne by Opacif on more or less the same conditions as those regulating individual training leave. Opacifs may decide to finance only those schemes taking place in audit centres accepting their terms of reference.

2.3.25.
Former beneficiaries of term contracts of employment and temporary workers are entitled to the skills audit leave. The conditions governing leave service seniority are the same as the original conditions for taking individual training leave (2.3.18 and 2.3.20).

(e) Other rights to absence

2.3.26.
French labour law gives employees several other rights to absence in connection with vocational training. In particular there are: the congé enseignement, (teaching leave) that an employee can take, suspending his contract of employment, to serve as a trainer in a training establishment; the congé examen, leave that can be taken in order to sit an examination; the congé de formation des membres du comité d'entreprise, leave that can be taken by people newly elected to the works committee to 'professionalize' their skills; and the congé de formation économique sociale et syndicale, that can be taken by any employee for training in the economic, social or union field, etc.

(II) The plan de formation — training plan

2.3.27.
There is no legal definition of the 'plan de formation'. The Labour Code simply states that the employer must consult the works committee on this training plan. The plan is defined in practice by its differences from the individual training leave. This is a set of training courses decided upon by the employer for his employees and implemented under the employer's own responsibility. There must be consultation with representatives of the work-force. It is funded out of the employer's compulsory contribution to the funding of vocational training.

(1) The employer's decision

2.3.28.
Subject to the obligation to consult the works committee, the employer has the discretionary power to send any employee within his enterprise on a training course. This means that a person may go on training as a result of:

(i) the employer's unilateral initiative;

(ii) an application from that employee, presented by himself or via the work-force representatives, subject to its acceptance by the employer.

2.3.29.
Certain legal decisions have set a precedent modifying this concept of the employer's discretionary power by placing an obligation to train upon the employer when an employee's job changes. Early in 1992, the Court of Cassation confirmed that the employer has an obligation to retrain employees whose employment is placed at risk by changes in their jobs, rather than making them redundant on economic grounds. If necessary, the employer must provide additional training for the employee.

2.3.30.
During training, the employee is regarded as being on a 'work mission'; in other words he is performing his contract of employment in a normal manner. In consequence the time spent on training by an employee must be remunerated as such by the employer. When the employee returns, in the absence of any agreement to the contrary, the employer has no obligation to take account of the skills that have been acquired.

(2) Consultation of the works committee

2.3.31.
The employer must consult the works committee on the training plan on two occasions. The first relates to the implementation of the plan for the current year, the second to the plan for the forthcoming year. Failure to consult the works committee does not prevent the employer from putting the training plan into action, but he will be liable to be charged with the offence of hampering the works committee in its duties, and participation in the funding of the vocational training will be increased by 50%.

2.3.32.
The works committee must also be consulted every year on vocational training guidelines within the enterprise. Lastly, if the enterprise draws up a multi-annual training plan, this must also be subject to consultation. More generally, any collective measure relating to vocational training must be submitted to the works committee, although this has only consultative power. Note that in enterprises with a work-force of more than 200, the works committee must set up a training committee responsible for preparing its work.

(3) Training leading to a qualification taken outside working hours ('co-investment')

2.3.33.
If the principle has been laid down by an extended interindustry agreement, part of the training taken under a training plan may be taken outside working hours and will not entitle the employee to remuneration. The training must be for at least 300 hours and be recognized as conferring qualifications. The employer must

also undertake to recognize the jobs corresponding to the qualification he has acquired as they become available. The employee is entitled, however, to refuse such an agreement with the employer.

2.3.34.
These provisions, the outcome of the agreement of 3 July 1991 and the Law of 31 December 1991, show that (of course in restricted cases) there is no longer a distinction between rights to absence (individual training leave, skills audit leave, etc.) and the obligation to go on training (training plan). They introduce a field of negotiation between the employer and employee on training procedures and objectives. Agreements within branches of industry and in-company agreements had already adopted measures of this type before 1991.

Training in the public sector

2.3.35.
The public sector breaks down into four subsets, each governed by its own rules: the State civil service, local civil service, hospital civil service and public-sector enterprises. Here we shall discuss only the first three sectors, since public-sector enterprises are to a great extent treated as comparable to enterprises in the private sector as regards training.

2.3.36.
There are 4.6 million public-sector employees, the breakdown being as follows:

(i) those employed by the State: 2 300 000 civil servants and 380 000 non-titulary employees, i. e. 2 680 000 (teachers, police officers, the judiciary, the armed forces, civil servants in ministerial departments, etc.);

(ii) those employed by local authorities: 840 000 local civil servants plus 360 000 non-titulary employees, i. e. 1 200 000 people (staff employed by communes, general councils and regional councils);

(iii) hospital workers: 660 000 titulary employees and 120 000 non-titulary employees, i. e. 780 000 people.

2.3.37.
The State has embarked upon a policy of negotiating the objectives and methods of modernization which (in June 1989 for State employees and in February 1990 for local and hospital employees) led to the signature of three outline agreements on continuing training in the public sector. These agreements transpose to the public sector the system existing in the private sector (training leave, obligation to finance training imposed on ministries and local authorities, etc.). This is only logical in that the human resource management techniques used in the private sector must be implemented in public service as well, with due regard for the specific nature of those public services. Training, which is one of the methods used in resource management, is being given the same role as it already has in the private sector.

(A) State employees

2.3.38.
The outline agreement on continuing training in the public service, concluded on 29 June 1989, provided for the setting-up of training plans by ministries and at every level, in consultation with union bodies. These plans were to take as their priorities the modernization of services and the forward management of jobs and qualifications, particular efforts being devoted to the training of middle management in modern personnel management techniques. The individual training plans included in the overall plan and being discussed by the hierarchy, should result in a minimum of three days' training per each employee per year.

2.3.39.
In 1992, the administration is to devote at least 2% of the gross wage bill to continuing training measures. This financial contribution towards continuing training is in addition to initial training expenditure on the administration's own schools. Training measures linked with the modernization of the administration may receive special, one-off funding under the Fonds de formation et de modernisation (training and modernization fund), especially when these measures are designed to prepare people for changing events in Europe.

2.3.40.
In employee's access to training, a distinction should be made between:

(i) measures taken on the administration's own initiative. Under ministerial training plans, each civil servant should be able to take three days' training per year, during which they will be regarded as being in service.

(ii) measures for the preparation of administrative competitive examinations. This is a training cycle or training course in which civil servants study for promotion or a move to another department through examinations and competitions taken by civil servants. They take the form of courses given during or outside working hours, and correspondence courses. Civil servants are entitled to take time off to study in this way;

(iii) training leave. Civil servants are entitled to go on training to take vocational or cultural courses not suggested to them by the administration. An application for such training leave may not be refused if the total amount of leave granted is less than 0.1% of the gross wage bill of the ministry concerned. The duration of the leave is from one month to three years. During a maximum period of one year, the civil servant has an allowance of 85% of his gross salary. At the end of the training, he is under an obligation to remain with the administration for a period equivalent to the duration of the course, or up to three times that duration. The system of training leave for civil servants, then, is more restrictive than for employees in the private sector.

(B) Local civil servants

2.3.41.
To fund their employees' training, the collectivités territoriales (communes, départements and regions) have to pay a yearly contribution based on the salaries they pay, up to a maximum of 1%. This contribution is paid over to the Centre national de la fonction publique territoriale (CNFPT — national centre for the training of local civil servants) which:

(i) defines general guidelines for the vocational training of those employed by the local authorities;

(ii) defines and provides for training programmes;

(iii) conducts all studies and research on training.

2.3.42.
The CNFPT has regional delegations and delegations for groups of départements. Local authorities have to establish a training plan each year, which is forwarded to the competent CNFPT delegation. If the authorities wish to organize training courses other than those provided by the CNFPT, they may go to training agencies direct but they must assume the cost of these measures, as the 1% levy funds only those measures organized by CNFPT.

2.3.43.
Local authority employees may apply to take training sessions with CNFPT in order to study for examinations or competitions or to improve their professional skills. They are entitled to take time off from their work. They may also be entitled to training leave, which is for a maximum of three years. This leave is paid only for the first year and up to 85% of the person's salary. Leave is not a right, and it may be refused provided that the authority states the grounds for its refusal. An employee who is granted training leave has an obligation to stay on in that employment for three times the duration of the course.

(C) Hospital employees

2.3.44.
Hospital establishments must devote a minimum of 1% of the wages paid out of their budget to vocational training measures. In 1993, this percentage is due to be raised to 2.1%. The funding is to be used for the training plan, which covers four types of measure:

(i) measures preparing people for competitions and examinations;

(ii) training courses leading to recognized diplomas and certificates;

(iii) adaptation measures;

(iv) retraining measures.

2.3.45.
Hospitals may be members of the Association nationale pour la formation du personnel hospitalier (ANFH). ANFH is a national association for the training of hospital staff whose terms of reference are to administer funds assigned to

training by its hospital members, based on a policy and guidelines decided upon by management and unions. ANFH has a network of 25 regional sections which set up multi-annual programmes and training measures for groups of hospitals.

2.3.46.
Hospital workers are entitled to apply for training leave to take vocational training courses other than those provided under the hospital's training plan. To do this they must have at least three years' length of service and obtain authorization for absence. The hospital management may not refuse a person's application more than three times.

To obtain remuneration during this leave, the employee must apply to ANFH to accept the cost of the training, since it is this body that collects an 0.1% levy on hospitals' wage bills to fund employees' training needs. The amount paid out is 85% of the employee's salary over a maximum period of 12 months. When the employee returns, he is under an obligation to work for at least three times the period of the course; failure to abide by this commitment will mean that he has to refund the allowances he has received.

State measures

2.3.47.
With decentralization, regions have had responsibility in principle for continuing training (see 1.1.8). But the State reserves the right to intervene in the case of measures going beyond the regional framework and directed towards certain target groups. The need to deal with problems of employment through training has brought the question of State intervention even more to the fore over the years. Today a distinction can be made among five major fields in which State measures are predominant:

(i) the integration of young people into the working world;

(ii) measures associated with employment policy (combating long-term unemployment);

(iii) aid to the development of training within the workplace;

(iv) measures directed towards specific target groups;

(v) measures conducted in partnership with the regional authorities.

We have already considered the integration of young people into the working world (see 2.2.33 *et seq.*), and only the four other fields will be discussed here.

(A) Measures to help job-seekers

2.3.48.
The first massive intervention on the part of the State in vocational training dates back to the late 1970s. The aim was to combat youth unemployment (2.2.34). From 1985, long-term unemployment became the second priority, to which the State devoted a steadily growing volume of funds. These various measures are administered by the Service publique de l'emploi.

(1) The measures

2.3.49.
The programme of action for 1992 included a whole series of measures designed to help job-seekers return to work. They were as follows:

Actions d'insertion et de formation.

These integration and training measures are training courses for long-term job-seekers. The training is tailored to the trainee's needs and is based on alternance between the workplace and the training centre. The measures take the form of individual access to training, vocational and social integration placements, placements devoted to drawing up a career plan, remobilization measures or placements leading to a qualification. Actions d'insertion et de formation are also used in connection with crédit formation for adults. In 1992, 160 000 places were planned.

Contrats de retour à l'emploi.

These 'back-to-work' contracts are designed to promote the recruitment for permanent jobs of people now excluded from the labour market. Employers recruiting long-term unemployed people under contracts for at least six months are granted exemptions from social security contributions and a one-off grant of FF10 000 (approximately ECU 1 500). The contract may include a training aspect, in which case the employer is repaid FF 50 per hour's training taken by the person recruited, provided that this training is essential to holding the post. In 1992 there were to be 120 000 such contracts.

Contrats emploi-solidarité

(see 2.2.81 *et seq.*). In 1992, 600 000 employment-solidarity contracts could be signed.

2.3.50.
In addition to the measures for the long-term unemployed, there are preventive measures. For example, 'stages de reclassement professionnel' are occupational retraining courses designed to broaden and update the vocational skills of job-seekers in order to protect them against the risk of long-term unemployment. The average duration of such measures, under which 30 000 places were to be offered in 1992, is 150 hours. Also of interest are the 'stages d'accès à l'emploi', placements preparing for access to employment which may be used to acquire the additional training a job-seeker needs in order to qualify for a job vacancy registered with ANPE, if the agency has no other person with the required qualifications. This stage d'accès à l'emploi may also be used to train an employee whom an employer undertakes to promote if the post he previously occupied is filled by recruitment from outside. In 1992, 45 000 places were available.

2.3.51.
These measures are adopted each year under plans for employment which also offer financial and fiscal incentives for recruitment, especially to small and medium-sized firms.

2.3.52.
Finally, we should mention the joint action being conducted by the State and Unedic (Union nationale pour l'emploi dans l'industrie et le commerce, a national union for employment in industry and commerce administered by management and unions and responsible for the supervision of unemployment insurance).

Since 1988, a measure known as the Allocation de formation-reclassement (AFR — training-retraining allowance) gives job-seekers a chance to retain their allowances under the unemployment benefits while they take a training course. This system of remuneration is funded by the insurance scheme itself and by State contributions. Almost 100 000 people benefit from the AFR every year.

(2) Implementation of measures

2.3.53.

The service public de l'emploi (see 3.1.21), which consists of ANPE, the direction départementale du travail, de l'emploi et de la formation professionnelle and AFPA, is responsible for implementing these measures. This means that decisions are taken and programmes administered at the département level. The aim is to work on the micro-economic level in the light of the recruitment potential among enterprises in a given job catchment area. The funds are contributed by the Fonds national pour l'emploi (FNE) or out of resources entrusted to ANPE.

(B) Aid for training within the workplace

2.3.54.

It is the twofold aim of the authorities to help enterprises to modernize and become more competitive by supporting their training efforts, encouraging employers to set up forward planning of jobs and skills, and, when justified by the situation, give support for internal and external retraining.

2.3.55.

The aid provided is as follows.

(i) Financial aid for the provision of training advice and the implementation of training measures is accessible to employers having a training development programme. Employers increasing their training expenditure from one year to the next may also be entitled to a tax credit.

(ii) Employers who expect to have to make people redundant on economic grounds are eligible for grants from the Fonds national pour l'emploi (FNE) if they arrange for internal or external retraining measures.

(iii) Employers embarking on measures or studies with a view to improving working conditions may apply for financial aid from the Fonds pour l'amélioration des conditions de travail (FACT — fund for the improvement of working conditions).

(iv) Employers wishing to set up the forward management of employment may receive up to 70% of the cost of consultancy from the State.

Finally, certain forms of aid are provided within specific branches of the economy, especially contracts for forward studies where the objective is to determine foreseeable trends in employment and job skills in the sector in question.

2.3.56.
These forms of aid can be summarized as follows.

(i) Forward studies contracts have been signed in all sectors of economic activity (agriculture, the manufacturing industry, the service industries and social economy). Twenty contracts have already been concluded with individual branches of the economy, covering more than five million employees.

(ii) In 1990, 380 employers received aid for training consultancy. In 13 regions, this form of aid is part of measures coming under the Contrat de plan (plan contract).

(iii) In 1990, 474 training development commitment agreements were in force, affecting 7 000 enterprises with a work-force of more than 10 people. The training measures supported were of benefit to 220 000 trainees.

(iv) Over 13 000 employers were granted training tax credit in 1990, to a total of FF 288 million.

(C) Measures directed towards specific target groups or sectors

2.3.57.
These measures are designed for target groups or sectors for which the State considers a special training effort should be made. These measures are implemented under national programmes, the management of which is sometimes conducted by the State at local rather than national level.

2.3.58.
The target groups concerned are usually defined by their social situation (women on their own, political refugees, those in custody, migrant workers, etc.). The sectors granted State help are either economic sectors (agriculture, crafts, etc.) or occupations in which there are skill shortages (engineers and management, trainers, etc.).

2.3.59.
In 1990 the priority measures benefited 80 000 people, with a total of 35 million training hours. Training funded by the State was given to 8 000 trainers.

(D) Measures implemented by the State and regions

2.3.60.
The transfer of responsibility to regional councils, combined with the continuance of massive intervention by the State, made it necessary to harmonize actions at regional level. The instrument for this harmonization is the Contrat de plan — a plan contract signed by the Prefect of the region and the president of each regional council. Plan contracts between the State and regions are concluded in pursuance of the general objectives laid down by the Tenth National Plan (1989-93). They do not cover just vocational training, but this is a priority in negotiations.

2.3.61.
The total amount of funding over the five-year period is FF 3 300 million, of which FF 2 100 is for vocational training and FF 1 200 million is for apprenticeship. Plan contracts between the State and the regions concluded during the period 1989-93 related to the following points:

(i) support measures (information on training, regional employment observation centres, support for consultancy, engineering);

(ii) various strategic programmes (such as the development of training in the workplace, the training of engineers and training on exports or in languages);

(iii) the diversification of female employment;

(iv) the social development of local neighbourhood areas;

(v) the campaign against illiteracy;

(vi) modernization of the provision of training (multi-media, skills audit centres, personalized teaching workshops and the training of trainers);

(vii) modernization of apprenticeship;

(viii) actions of benefit to a specific region.

Regional training programmes

2.3.62.
In education in the broad sense, regions have very wide responsibilities (1.1.6 *et seq.*). In addition to their responsibilities in principle for vocational training, they have almost total responsibility for apprenticeship and major responsibilities for initial training. Through this threefold responsibility, regions are able to fund actions that meet the objectives of regional economic and social development.

2.3.63.
Training measures are to be implemented through a regional programme for apprenticeship and vocational training that is to be drawn up and decided upon annually. This programme is in two phases: regional guidelines for training and apprenticeship are defined and the guidelines are translated into a programme of training in the form of a list of the training measures that will be financed. To finance these measures, the regions have funds disbursed by the State and their own tax revenue resources.

(A) Implementation of decentralization

2.3.64.
Regional councils operate with relatively lightweight training services, with a staff of fewer than 10 as a general rule. Their main method of intervention is to call for tenders from training agencies. Under the transfer of responsibilities, they are entitled to call upon the State's external departments (Directions régionales de ministères), in order to process tenders submitted by agencies.

2.3.65.
The measures introduced by regions are implemented in every field: the financing of training for job-seekers, aid for setting up training centres, financing social advancement and development training, aid to training insurance funds, participation in commitments for the development of training, etc.

2.3.66.
Despite the plan contracts, the difficulties arise at two levels: whereas regional action does not have links at département level, the State has chosen this level for the implementation of policies on aid for employment and training for the long-term job-seekers. This means that regional councils do not always find the party that is responsible for acting at regional level. Moreover, despite the 'Comité coordination des programmes régionaux de formation et d'apprentissage', exchange between regions and the dissemination of innovatory measures are still fairly limited. More generally, the regions criticize the State for not having thought through all the consequences of the laws on decentralization and for not having made the region the main level for the organization and supervision of vocational training systems.

(B) Statistical summary of the measures conducted

2.3.67.
In 1990, 426 000 people took all or part of a training course funded by a regional council. The average duration of training was about 400 hours.

2.3.68.
The nine most popular groups of training courses, taken by 64% of trainees, were in the following subjects:

(i)	economics, business, general legal, management	15%
(ii)	agriculture	10.6%,
(iii)	science or industrial techniques	9%,
(iv)	pre-training	6%,
(v)	teaching, education project leadership	5.4%,
(vi)	electronic data processing, information technology	5.2%,
(vii)	commerce and retailing	5.1%,
(viii)	financial and accounting techniques	4%,
(ix)	mechanical engineering	3.9%,

Of the trainees, 75% were aged 35 or under.

(For the financial summary, see 3.2.5).

Social advancement

2.3.69.
Under the heading of social advancement come training courses taken outside working hours on an individual basis. In other words, these are mainly evening and distance courses.

2.3.70.
Introduced by the Law of 31 July 1959, social advancement was for the purpose of helping people to improve their prospects at work by establishing a mechanism of aid for training centres. In the absence of regulations allowing employees to take training in working hours, the teaching was organized in the form of evening courses. The creation of individual training leave diverted a number of employees from the evening courses, but they none the less retained their public. Most of the people taking such courses enrolled with the Conservatoire national des arts et métiers (CNAM) or its member centres. About 75 000 people, 30 000 of them in Paris and 45 000 in the provinces, take CNAM courses. CNAM is attached to the Ministry of National Education.

2.3.71.
In the same way the 'Centre national d'enseignement à distance' (CNED), which is also attached to the Ministry of National Education, has 200 000 people enrolling for its correspondence courses every year. In addition, 300 000 people take correspondence courses with private training agencies.

In other words, a total of some 600 000 people undertake training on an individual basis within the context of social advancement.

2.3.72.
It must be pointed out, however, that CNAM and CNED enrolments have been at a fairly stable level over the past few years. There are perhaps two main causes of the lack of growth in numbers: the development of opportunities for access to training as part of the individual training leave measure, or specific training measures, and the low level of development of distance training methods. Television channels, for example, have not been invaded by training agencies. In the same way, multi-media products are not producing the results hoped for by the authorities. Access to social advancement, however, should develop over the years to come.

Adult vocational guidance

2.3.73.
The systematic incorporation of vocational guidance is without doubt one of the major trends in the vocational training system over the past few years. This has transformed training systems into measures for retraining people for other jobs, within which guidance comes first and the training comes only after it has been established that it is really necessary.

(A) Places of guidance

2.3.74.
The French vocational guidance measure for adults before the introduction of the right to a skills audit for employees used to be almost solely directed towards job-seekers and was organized around the services provided by ANPE. Around ANPE, various bodies provide preliminary contact, information and guidance for adults (the agencies catering for young people's guidance have been described elsewhere).

2.3.75.
Every year ANPE provides over six million services in the form of preliminary contact, evaluation, information or advice. The agency may subcontract these services to other bodies that it has empowered to do so.

2.3.76.
The Association pour l'emploi des cadres (APEC) is financed out of contributions from managerial staff and employers. Created by the social partners, the purpose of the association is to support managerial staff in seeking employment and employers in their search for managers.

2.3.77.
The public-sector guidance service bodies also include 'centres inter institutionnels de bilan de compétences' (CIBC). The plan was that each département should have one such interinstitutional skills audit centre in 1992. The terms of reference of these centres are to arrange for skills audits and organize the provision of reviews where they can subcontract some of the services they provide. The audit is defined as an overall step which helps an individual to identify what he has already achieved in the way of skills and to evaluate those skills.

2.3.78.
Finally, it should be pointed out that the National Education Ministry centres d'information et d'orientation cater for all groups, even though they are mainly directed towards young people (see 2.2.99).

2.3.79.
There are two bodies for the vocational guidance of women.

(i) Centres d'information sur les droits des femmes (CIDF), which provide general help for women encountering social or occupational problems. The two pillars of the work of these information centres on women's rights are vocational information and guidance and information on social legislation.

(ii) The 'Retravailler' association, founded in 1974 and recognized as being of public utility, suggests guidance and training measures with a view to helping and supporting women wishing to return to work.

2.3.80.
Other bodies that act as contact, information and vocational guidance points include:

(i) Fonds d'assurance formation, whose terms of reference include the provision of information to employers and employees. Some of these training insurance funds, especially those that administer individual training leave, arrange information meetings outside working hours.

(ii) Maisons d'information sur la formation (MIF), whose aim is to serve as a one-stop centre for information on the problems of employment and training in a given geographical area. These maisons d'information sur la formation are likely to develop further in the years to come.

2.3.81.
On the whole, the French vocational guidance system is notable for its diversity and the number of bodies providing contact, information and guidance. The tendency today is for the various services to be brought together in single centres, for example the carrefours pour l'emploi des jeunes (2.2.110).

(B) Guidance measures

2.3.82.
As already indicated, vocational guidance has become part of the set of training measures for job-seekers. Since 1986, for instance, four training measures have been entirely overhauled. These are for young people (crédit formation), job-seekers (allocation de formation reclassement — allowance for retraining; stage de reclassement professionnel — vocational retraining placement), long-term job-seekers (integration and training measures) and employees who are laid off on economic grounds (retraining agreements).

2.3.83.
All the measures set up are based on preliminary guidance, which is a prerequisite for the training. They all incorporate the concept of the skills audit and monitoring, so that the vocational training system for job-seekers today is far more than a mere set of routes of access to training. It is becoming a coherent, targeted system.

2.3.84.
According to the measures to promote employment adopted by the government in 1991, 'the prime need for any young or adult job-seeker thinking about his vocational future is to benefit from an audit of vocational and personal skills'.

2.3.85.
The objective is to offer an audit to 400 000 job-seekers, i. e. 50% more skills audits than in 1991 (these figures will be increased even higher under a plan to combat long-term unemployment launched in the spring of 1992). Such action assumes that the provision of audits, one that is still emerging, will be more structured. In particular, thought must be given as to the services that can be provided by operators in the public sector (ANPE, CIO, AFPA, etc.) and those which can be expected from training centres and employers especially in matters of skills evaluation.

2.3.86.
Apart from these actions for job-seekers, it should be pointed out that 1991 was the year in which the right to vocational guidance was granted to employees through the skills audit leave (2.3.23).

2.3.87.
In conclusion, vocational guidance for adults is provided by such a wide range of institutions and measures that it can be forecast that access to guidance will become relatively easy for employees or job-seekers. The problem, then, is shifted from that of access to a problem of the content of the services provided.

3

THE STATUTORY AND FINANCIAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. The statutory framework

3.1.1.
The regulatory and financial framework applies only to continuing training. The operating rules for the initial training system call for fewer comments, at least as this report is structured. There are three points that we feel are vital to an understanding of the workings of the continuing training system: the ways in which rules are created, the consultative bodies and procedure, and the rules on the workings of the training market.

The creation of rules

3.1.2.
In France there is a right to vocational training. The creation of this right may be very precisely dated to 9 July 1970. Why this date? Because it marks the time when the social partners took over a domain with which they had not previously been concerned; this appropriation tipped the scales so that the emerging right to training became part of labour law. Even 20 years after this agreement, it is hard to weigh the full implications of the position adopted by the partners.

3.1.3.
The inclusion of vocational training among the subjects for negotiation in the post-1968 Grenelle round suddenly brought training into the social sphere. By negotiating on behalf of private-sector employees regarding vocational training, the social partners at once brought the emerging right under the heading of labour law. The Law of 16 July 1971 was to codify this situation by drafting a text which was to become Book IX of the Labour Code, entitled 'la formation professionnelle continue dans le cadre de l'éducation permanente' (continuing vocational training in the framework of permanent education).

3.1.4.
It is hard to define all the effects produced by linking labour law and the right to training, but there were three essential factors.

(i) One consequence was to detach institutions within the public sector from the creation of rules. For example the Fédération de l'education nationale (FEN), the teachers' union (and the largest in France in terms of number of members), did not take part in the negotiations on vocational training and does not participate directly in the creation of rules. The impact of this exclusion will readily be appreciated in a country where, as we have already pointed out, there is a very marked separation between the educational world and the working world. Another consequence was that the regions, which have responsibility in principle for vocational training, play only a minor role in the creation of rules and therefore perform their part under measures created by the State and the social partners.

(ii) Labour law is not really capable of taking into consideration the people furthest removed from employment. Although it has been possible to extend labour law to pre- or post-employment situations (mainly, moreover, through training), it has been difficult to extend its limits much further. The reason is that the right to training is not very formalized for job-seekers in difficulties or other marginalized groups, and on the whole the rules remain little more than ministerial circulars.

(iii) Lastly, there is a similarity of objectives between labour law and the right to training. Linked with employment, this right followed trends not only in labour law but also on the labour market. The introduction into labour law of agreements on derogations, for example, in other words agreements going back on certain rights granted by law to employees, resulted in the appearance of the same agreements on training. Following the individual training leave, where agreements could lay down financial conditions for accepting financial responsibility at levels lower than the legal system, it was the training plan regulations which covered a practice of this kind through the concept of co-investment (2.3.33).

3.1.5.
Although the affiliation between labour law and the right to training was such as to permit its development, it does have certain inherent limits, which are those inherent in labour law itself.

Public decision-making and management bodies

3.1.6.
Despite decentralization, the administration of vocational training is still principally the province of the State, with the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Vocational Training in charge of State policy in this field. On the other hand, the Ministry of National Education has responsibility for technical education. Finally, regional councils administer a regional policy on vocational training.

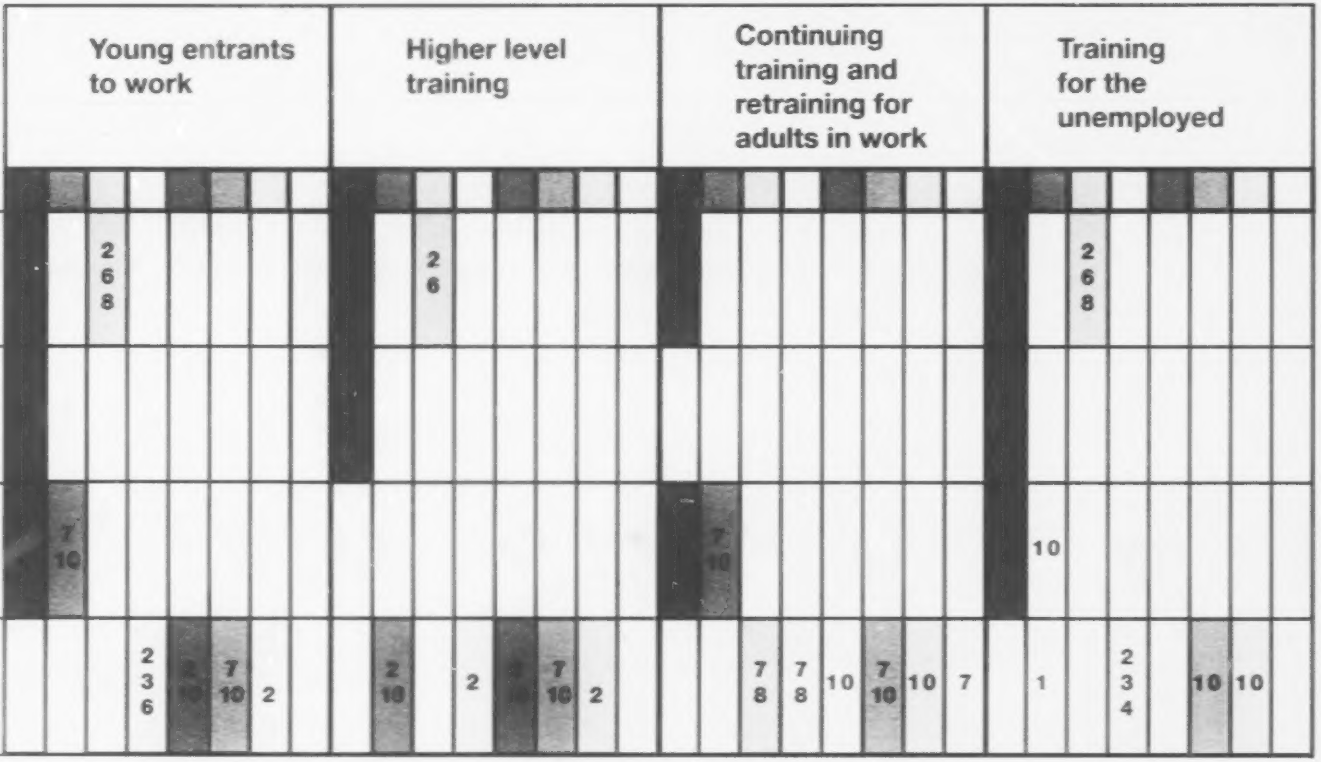
(A) State structures

(1) The Ministry of Labour, Employment and Vocational Training

3.1.7.
It was the Law of 16 July 1971 which set up an administrative body for vocational training. Answerable to a délégué interministériel (interministerial delegate) directly attached to the Prime Minister, its terms of reference were to ensure that employers were meeting their obligations to contribute towards the funding of vocational training, an obligation that was introduced under the same Law of 16 July 1971.

3.1.8.
In the mid-1970s, this administrative body became a 'Secrétaire d'Etat à la formation professionnelle', first of all attached to the Prime Minister and then to the Minister for Labour. When the Left came to power in 1981, its creation of a Ministry for Vocational Training marked the importance attached to the issue. In 1984, however, the relationship between employment and training was to result in the creation of a single Ministry of Labour, Employment and Vocational Training.

Responsible authorities (France)



	Young entrants to work							
NATIONAL			2 6 8					
REGIONAL								
SUB-REGIONAL		7 10						
ORGANIZATION/ INSTITUTION				2 3 6	2 10	7 10	2	

	Higher level training							
NATIONAL			2 6					
REGIONAL								
SUB-REGIONAL								
ORGANIZATION/ INSTITUTION		2 10		2	2 10	7 10	2	

	Continuing training and retraining for adults in work							
NATIONAL								
REGIONAL								
SUB-REGIONAL		7 10						
ORGANIZATION/ INSTITUTION			7 8	7 8	10	7 10	10	7

	Training for the unemployed							
NATIONAL			2 6 8					
REGIONAL								
SUB-REGIONAL		10						
ORGANIZATION/ INSTITUTION		1		2 3 4		10	10	

1. Ministry of Labour
2. Ministry of National Education
3. ANPE
4. DDTEFP
5. DRFP
6. Other public institution
7. Employers
8. Social partners
9. Regional councils
10. Training agencies

■	System regulation
▨	Definition of content
░	Evaluation and certification
☐	Information and guidance

Delivery:

■	solely in education or training centres
▨	by alternance training
░	by self-training
☐	only in workplace

Due to the number of organizations involved and the overlapping of responsibilities between institutions, this table only gives a partial impression of the total system.

After the creation of a Secrétariat d'Etat a la formation professionnelle attached to the Minister for Labour between 1988 and 1991, in 1991 France has now returned to a single Ministry of Labour, Employment and Vocational Training.

(a) The organization of services at central level

3.1.9.
In order to implement policy on vocational training, the Minister for Labour, Employment and Vocational Training can essentially call on two departments: the Délégation à la formation professionnelle (DFP) and the Délégation à l'emploi (DE). He also exercises supervision over ANPE, AFPA and Centre INFFO and co-supervision (together with the Ministry of National Education) over CEREQ.

3.1.10.
In terms of resources, the Délégation à la formation professionnelle has a staff of 88. It is headed by the Délégué à la formation professionnelle. The delegation has a unit responsible for the legal and financial monitoring of vocational training, the Groupe national de contrôle (GNC). The delegation's terms of reference are to prepare and vitalize interministerial policy on vocational training and social advancement, monitor its legal, financial and technical implementation, maintain the necessary liaison with local coordination and consultative bodies and support information measures as part of this policy.

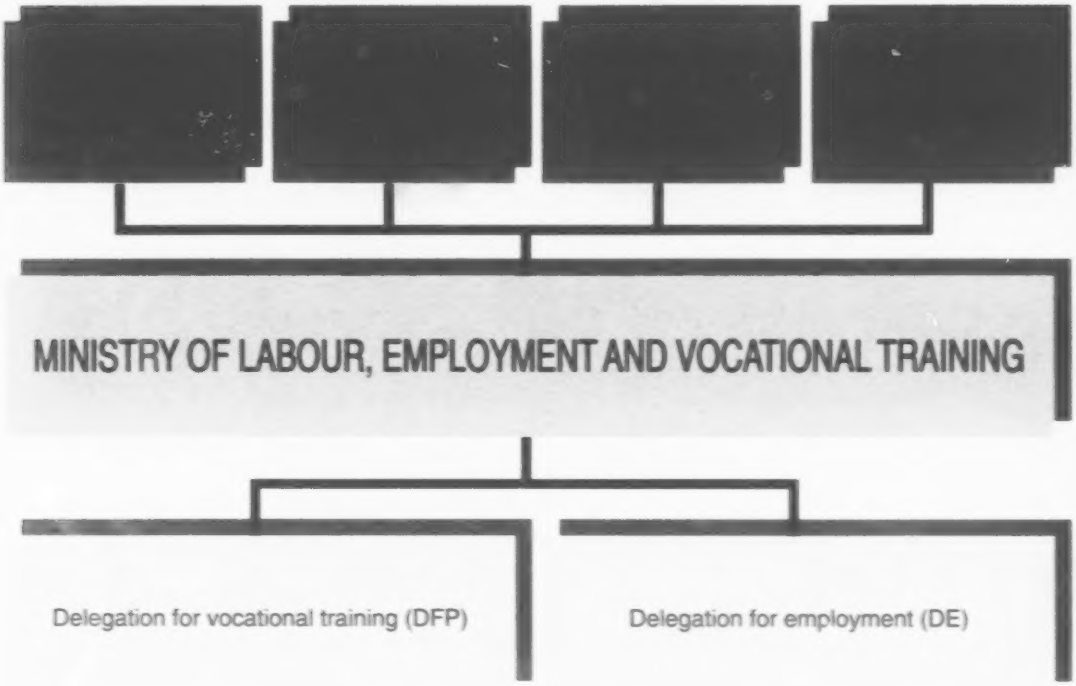
3.1.11.
The Délégation à l'emploi has a staff of 250. Most of them deal with questions of vocational training as part of their duties, since the delegation is responsible for preparing, spearheading, coordinating and implementing policy on employment and vocational training for adults.

3.1.12.
Several reports on measures conducted by the State in the field of vocational training have pointed out the ambiguity created by the survival of two delegations having shared terms of reference. These reports revealed the illogicality of these responsibilities being shared between two delegations, and the increased overlap in their activities over the years. The overlapping of responsibility and the juxtaposition of agencies detract from the effectiveness of logistical services and the coherence of measures. According to the report by the central committee of inquiry on the cost and performance of public services, such interactions adversely affect the work of the administration at local level. It seems that sooner or later the two delegations will merge or be reorganized.

3.1.13.
The work of the two delegations is supplemented by that of institutions supervised by the Ministry of Labour.

3.1.14.
The Agence nationale pour l'emploi, created in 1967, is a public-sector establishment having civil personality and financial autonomy, coming under the authority of the Ministry of Labour. Originally responsible for the job placement of job-seekers, since 1986 the agency has been given broader terms of reference

State departments at central level


MINISTRY OF LABOUR, EMPLOYMENT AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING
Delegation for vocational training (DFP)
Delegation for employment (DE)

for intervention on the labour market: it may implement vocational training measures targeted at job-seekers or employees transferring to new jobs and it may administer public-sector funds for promoting employment if they have a training aspect. ANPE has 25 regional delegations, 103 delegations at département level and 622 agences locales pour l'emploi. It has a staff of about 12 000.

3.1.15.
The Association pour la formation professionnelle des adultes (AFPA) is headed by a board of directors with representatives of employers and employees and of the authorities. It is the leading training body in France. Its terms of reference are to direct its efforts towards the most disadvantaged groups (young people, the long-term unemployed, those at risk of redundancy, etc.). It has 21 centres psychotechniques régionaux (CPTR — regional 'psychotechnic centres'), responsible for preliminary contact with and the guidance of trainees, 22 regional agencies and 130 training centres. It has a staff of 10 000 and a budget of almost FF 3 500 million (1991).

3.1.16.
The terms of reference of the Centre pour le développement de l'information sur la formation permanente (Centre INFFO) are to provide the training professionals with the information tools they require. It runs a documentation centre and a

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tele-information service, as well as producing publications and arranging information or training days.

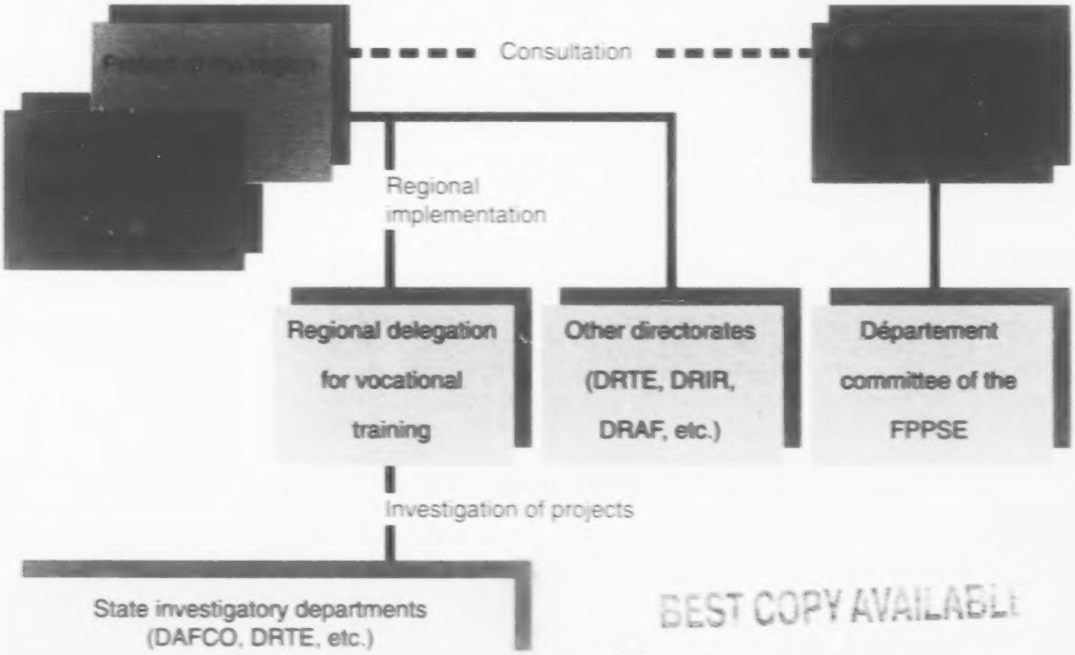
3.1.17.
The work of the central administration is supplemented by that of the Délégation interministérielle à l'insertion des jeunes (DIJ), coming under the authority of the Prime Minister. The interministerial delegation for the integration of young people spearheads training policy for the 16 to 25 age group.

3.1.18.
Finally, a Délégation pour le développement de l'apprentissage et des formations en alternance (delegation for the development of apprenticeship and alternance training), also under the Prime Minister's direct authority, was set up in June 1991. Its terms of reference are to promote relations between the educational system and employers, so that the aspirations of young people and their families are taken into better account and to promote a more appropriate response to the needs of the economy.

(b) The organization of services at decentralized level

3.1.19.
The Prefect of the region is responsible for implementing State policy on vocational training at regional level. The Délégation régionale à la formation professionnelle (DRFP) and the Service public de l'emploi (SPE) are two poles of intervention which reflect the dualism apparent at the national level between the DFP and the DE.

State departments at decentralized level


Prefect of the region
Consultation
Regional implementation
Regional delegation for vocational training
Other directorates (DRTE, DRIR, DRAF, etc.)
Département committee of the FPPSE
Investigation of projects
State investigatory departments (DAFCO, DRTE, etc.)

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3.1.20.
The DRFP administers training programmes for individual sectors of the economy (measures for the 16 to 25 age group, crédit formation, action on training, aid for the development of training in the workplace, etc.), leads the regional consultation bodies and incorporates the regional supervisory service.

3.1.21.
The Service public de l'emploi was set up by a ministerial circular of 7 March 1984. Under the authority of the Délégation à l'emploi, it brings together the outside labour and employment services, AFPA and ANPE. Its terms of reference are to propose and implement training measures suited to the needs of employers and workers, especially those without jobs, and to promote the job integration of groups that are in a vulnerable position on the labour market. The Service public de l'emploi acts at the département level through Directions départementales du travail, de l'emploi et de la formation professionnelle (DDTEFP — département-level directorates of labour, employment and vocational training) and the Délégations départementales de l'ANPE (DDA — ANPE département delegations), essentially implementing training measures directed at job-seekers or employees at risk of redundancy.

3.1.22.
For greater coherence of State action, a reform of this organization was announced for 1992. The DRFPs are likely to lose some of their management duties, which will be transferred to the DDTEFPs. The aim is to shift the operational level to the département, both in the case of training agencies and in the case of employers. The missions of DRFPs as they pertain to guidance, coordination, planning and evaluation are likely to be strengthened. A joint approach with the Directions régionales du travail et de l'emploi should help to create closer liaison between the forward analysis of employment and State intervention in the field of training. This reform should come into force gradually.

(2) The Ministry of National Education

3.1.23.
The role of the Ministry of National Education in the field of educational training takes several forms. In the first place, it has under its responsibility initial vocational training, in other words training provided in the educational system to pupils and students (see 2.2.2 *et seq.*). The second field in which it intervenes is in the work of educational establishments on the continuing training market, whether these are higher education establishments through their continuing training service, or groups of secondary education establishments (Groupements d'établissements de l'enseignement secondaire — GRETA). To coordinate the work done by the various establishments, within each academic district the Ministry has set up a Délégation académique à la formation continue (DAFCO — district delegation for continuing training). A third measure is the continuing training of its own teaching staff, in other words the training of its own employees. Lastly, the Education Minister funds vocational training through the Conservatoire national des arts et métiers and the Centre national d'enseignement à distance (see 2.3.70 and 2.3.71).

3.1.24.
The Ministries of Labour and of Education, as shown by the consultation that takes place under the reform of apprenticeship, will to a growing degree have to have a common policy on vocational training, confirming the interministerial nature of vocational training.

(3) Other ministries

3.1.25.
Other ministries do not intervene directly in the implementation of State policy on vocational training, although they may administer measures or training centres within their own fields.

(B) Regional councils

3.1.26.
As pointed out (2.3.64), regional councils have fairly small staffs and work through bodies made available to them by the State. The figure for people dealing with vocational training in the 22 regions (a total of some 300) is very small by comparison with State employees (in ministries, SPE, DRFP, AFPA, ANPE, etc.), who number in the thousands. The same imbalance occurs on the financial level (3.2.2). The proportion at the regional level, however, is likely to rise, especially if negotiations between the State and the regions are developed by bringing in the branches of the economy.

Consultative bodies and procedures

3.1.27.
A distinction should be made between bodies set up by the State and those set up by the social partners. For an overall view of the role of those involved in vocational training, however, we should also discuss the impact of joint union-management involvement in and negotiations on vocational training.

(A) Consultative bodies set up by the State

3.1.28.
These are attached to the Ministry of National Education or the Ministry of Employment, depending on whether they operate in initial training or continuing training.

(1) Consultative bodies for initial training

3.1.29.
The Conseil supérieur de l'éducation nationale brings together the representatives of all the organizations concerned with matters of teaching and education. It must be consulted and may deliver its views on all questions of national interest relating to teaching or education, whatever the ministry concerned.

3.1.30.
The Conseil de l'enseignement général et technique gives its views on regulations pertaining to curricula, examinations, the issue of diplomas, compulsory schooling and other matters pertaining to private-sector primary education, secondary education and technical education. It includes representatives from the authorities, parents and teaching staff in public and private-sector establishments, as well as experts.

3.1.31.
These two bodies meet at least once a year when convened by the Minister for Education. Between sessions, standing sections represent the Councils and perform their consultative duties.

3.1.32.
The Haut-comité Education-Economie, set up in 1986, is responsible for establishing standing consultation at the highest level between the education system and the economic partners. It may embark on any studies and make any proposals regarding general, technological and vocational education and training, as well as conducting research in the field of education and training.

3.1.33.
Commissions professionnelles consultatives (CPC) are the main bodies for consultation with trade and industry with a view to defining technological and vocational diplomas and teaching. There are 20 such advisory boards, broken down by sectors of the economy, each one consisting of representatives of management associations, the unions, the Education Ministry and experts. Their function is the conception and updating of technological training in the light of developments in qualifications. There are also CPCs attached to the Ministry of Labour. At present there are four such boards (for the building, metallurgical, tertiary and chemical industries), and they are at the disposal of AFPA.

(2) Consultative bodies for continuing training

3.1.34.
Consultation between the social partners and the State is through three coordinating bodies: the Conseil national de la formation professionnelle, de la promotion sociale et de l'emploi (FPPSE), a standing board that is an offshoot of FPPSE, the Commission permanente, and the Conseil de gestion du fonds de la FPPSE.

3.1.35.
The Conseil national de la FPPSE (national FPPSE council) is made up of representatives of the social partners and public or private-sector bodies or experts, representatives of the ministries concerned with training, and senior civil servants. Its terms of reference are to give its views on training policy guidelines in the light of the needs of the economy and employment prospects.

3.1.36.
The Commission permanente du conseil national de la FPPSE (FPPSE national council standing committee) is chaired by the minister responsible for vocational training and has representation of the social partners and ministries. It meets very regularly and gives detailed consideration to draft legislation and regulations of all kinds and policy guidelines on vocational training.

3.1.37.
The responsibility for allocation of vocational training credits is held by the Conseil de gestion de la formation professionnelle. This council for the administration of vocational training has six representatives of union bodies, six representatives of management organizations and 12 representatives of the ministries.

3.1.38.
The Comité de coordination des programmes régionaux d'apprentissage et de formation professionnelle continue has 12 representatives of the State, 12 of the social partners and one for each of the 26 regional councils. This committee for the coordination of regional apprenticeship and continuing training programmes is responsible for the coherence and effectiveness of measures undertaken by the State and the regions in the field of vocational training. It may propose any measure that will harmonize regional programmes and coordinate guidelines adopted by the State and regions.

3.1.39.
At the decentralized level, the Comité régional de la FPPSE (COREF) is consulted by the State and the region on the training programmes it implements. This regional committee of FPPSE consists of the Prefect of the region, the President of the regional council, five representatives of management organizations, five of the unions, one representative of FEN, one of public-sector educational establishments, one of the Chambers of Commerce and Industry and one of the Chambers of Trades, one of the Chambers of Agriculture and two of the voluntary and social sector.

At the département level, therefore, the Comité départemental de la FPPSE performs the same role as the Comité régional on the regional level.

(B) Bodies set up by the social partners

3.1.40.
Apart from the bodies set up by the authorities on which they are represented, the social partners have established bodies for consultation on, and the regulation and management of, vocational training.

(1) Joint management/union bodies

3.1.41.
A distinction should be made between bodies having general responsibilities for employment and training and those that specialize in the field of vocational training. In the former case, these are the Commissions paritaires de l'emploi and COPIRE, whereas the latter are the Comité paritaire national pour la formation professionnelle (CPNFP), Agefal and Copacif.

3.1.42.
The general terms of reference of Commissions paritaires nationales de l'emploi (CPNE — Joint national employment boards) are to promote training policy in each branch of trade and industry. Their missions range from studying existing methods of basic and advanced training and vocational adaptation at each level of qualification, and monitoring developments in titles and diplomas of technological and vocational education.

3.1.43.
The Commissions paritaires interprofessionnelles régionales de l'emploi (Copire — joint regional interindustry employment boards) have the role in the field of training of promoting training policy within their own region. Their missions are much the same as those of CPNEs. They may adopt initiatives on vocational guidance for young people.

3.1.44.
The Comité paritaire national pour la formation professionnelle (CPNFP — national joint management/union committee for vocational training) was set up by the agreement of 3 July 1991. This committee consists of two representatives per union signatory to the agreement (CFDT, CFTC, FO and CGC), and two representatives of the signatory management associations (CNPF, CGPME, UPA). The terms of reference of the CPNFP are to provide information to employers and employees on the Agreement of 3 July 1991 and to state the procedures for the implementation of this agreement. It is the body that talks to the authorities regarding questions of vocational training. A joint technical group is set up within the committee to monitor training matters.

3.1.45.
Regarding Agefal and Copacif, see 2.2.71 and 2.3.15.

(2) Supervisory bodies

3.1.46.
These are training assurance funds (FAF), which may be accredited as organismes paritaires de gestion du congé individuel de formation (Opacif — joint bodies for the management of individual training leave) or organismes mutualisateurs agréés (OMA — accredited mutual funding agencies) and associations de formation (ASFOs — training associations), which may also be approved as OMAs if they set up a joint management/union improvement council. As regards these various bodies, see 2.1.18 (FAF), 2.3.12 (Opacif), 2.2.67 (OMA) and 2.2.69 (ASFO).

3.1.47.
At present there are over 130 training assurance funds that have been accredited for activities under the training plan, and 70 are responsible for administering individual training leave. Over 200 bodies, FAFs or ASFOs are accredited for the administration of funds channelled to alternance training.

(3) Negotiations in the field of vocational training

3.1.48.
The Law of 24 February 1984 introduced a five-year obligation to negotiate on training objectives and resources in sectors of the economy. The Agreement of 3 July 1991 broadened this obligation to negotiate by redefining the subjects that must be discussed. This revision of the content of negotiations within individual branches of the economy was motivated by the concern to take into account the forward management of jobs in the run-up to the single market in 1993.

Negotiations must relate to:

(i) the training efforts that have to be made to help lower-skilled employees, especially to facilitate their career development;

(ii) procedures for the crédit formation (a commitment by an employee to continue to work for the enterprise for a certain period following his training);

(iii) a search for suitable appropriate solutions to the specific problems of training in small and medium-sized enterprises, in particular those whose work-force is smaller than 10;

(iv) the possible impact of changes of training needs on working hours;

(v) procedures to enable employers to take into account the provisions of any intra-branch agreement arising from negotiations;

(vi) procedures for taking the European dimension of training into account.

(C) Review of consultation in the field of vocational training

3.1.49.

The large number of internal and external consultation bodies and procedures, as well as the management of training schemes, are evidence of the central role of the social partners in the continuing training system (it is far less important in the educational system). This role is entirely logical having regard to the procedures for the creation of legislation and regulations and the history of the French system.

3.1.50

This system of the continuing consultation and presence of the social partners has the undoubted advantage of involving employers and employees in the vocational training system through their representatives. It is likely to lead to more stringent supervision of training measures and greater attention being paid to the actual needs of employers and employees. It also is likely to introduce innovations, in that the social partners are becoming more professional about training problems.

3.1.51.

It does, however, come up against two difficulties.

(i) The first difficulty is the question of the resources that have to be committed by the social partners to make the system operate. These resources are both quantitative, (since the proliferation of such bodies means that more representatives have to be found), and qualitative. The complexity of the system and the problems raised by training call for special skills if people are to be able to play an effective part in consultation or administer local agencies. The problem arises acutely at the local level, which is tending to become the place where decisions are actually reached on the implementation of policies.

(ii) The second difficulty is that the State cannot relinquish its role as protector of the public interest (the joint union management concept is influenced by relations between confederation structures and organizations in specific branches of the economy, whereas whole sectors are not covered by management confederations and so are not bound by the agreements signed at interindustry level).

3.1.52.
One of the merits of the Agreement of 3 July 1991 is that it clearly defines the question of the respective role of the State and the social partners, with the latter organizing under the agreement systems for the management of schemes that tend towards autonomy.

The training market

3.1.53.
Continuing training accounts for more than FF 90 000 million per year. It is a market in its own right, therefore, and it has also been gradually growing over the past few years. A feature of this market is the number and diversity of training agencies and the volume of funds available. To clarify this market, in which some abuse has been experienced, in 1990 the authorities launched a campaign for the 'moralization' and quality upgrading of training. This took the form of strengthening the rules governing training, especially when it is funded by the State. The market for training is characterized by a concern for the recognition of qualifications, which to a great extent is related to the image attached to developments in France, and which has led to the creation of an original system of certification.

(A) The training apparatus

3.1.54.
Any individual or corporate body lodging a prior declaration of its existence with departments supervising vocational training is recognized as a training agency. The obligation to make a declaration is accompanied by an obligation to allow those departments to audit the training and financial balance sheet each year. It is the use of these two documents that helps us to discern more clearly the realities of the training market.

Training agencies

Status	**1987**	**1988**	**1989**	**1987/88**	**1988/89**
Establishments under Education Ministry	386	414	411	7.25 %	–0.72 %
Other ministries	127	144	176	13.39 %	22.22
Sub-total: public-sector agencies	**513**	**558**	**587**	**8.77 %**	**5.20 %**
Chambers of Commerce	138	151	156	9.42 %	3.31 %
Chambers of Trades	27	33	33	22.22 %	0.00 %
Chambers of Agriculture	7	7	15	0.00 %	n.s.
AFPA — CPTR	105	121	121	15.24 %	0.00 %
Sub-total: para-public-sector agencies	**277**	**312**	**325**	**12.64 %**	**4.17 %**
Individuals	3 046	3 427	3 920	12.51 %	14.39 %
Sociétés à responsabilité limitée	3 615	4 353	4 857	20.41 %	11.58 %
Sociétés anonymes	2 052	2 280	2 437	11.11 %	6.89 %
ASFO	177	168	192	–5.08 %	14.29 %
Associations under 1901 Law (non-profit-making)	3 106	3 390	3 834	9.14 %	13.10 %
Other private-sector status	630	684	762	8.57 %	11.40 %
Sub-total: agencies formed under private law	**12 626**	**14 302**	**16 002**	**13.27 %**	**11.89 %**
Grand total	**13 416**	**15 172**	**16 914**	**13.09 %**	**11.48 %**

Source: Délégation à la formation professionnelle.

3.1.55.
As of 31 December 1990, the national supervisory group audited 36 297 training agencies that had made a prior declaration. Nevertheless, the number of active agencies was only 24 509, only 4 000 agencies having a turnover of over FF 1 million (approximately ECU 150 000). These 4 000 training agencies account for 90% of the total training turnover, with only 1 000 of the largest training agencies account for 60% of total earnings.

3.1.56.
Training funders can be broken down into four major categories: employers, joint management-union bodies, the authorities and the training agencies themselves under subcontract.

3.1.57.
The training market cannot really be said to be competitive, or at least only marginally and then mainly in the private sector. Public agencies and associations prefer to work with the authorities, whereas employers tend to deal directly with commercial companies. Private funds go to the private sector and public funds to the public sector, or at least towards the non-commercial sector.

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3.1.58.
This flow of funding is due mainly to the scales of charges applied by the authorities, which are relatively low and are therefore of interest only to the public sector, which needs to be no more than marginally profitable (certain operating costs of public agencies are in fact covered out of their general budget), as well as non-profit-making agencies. On the other hand, commercial companies charge employers far higher rates. As a comparison, the scale of charges for public authorities ranges from FF 20 to 25 per trainee/hour, i. e. the daily rate of FF 1 500 (approximately ECU 200) for a group of 10 trainees, whereas the average price of a day's training in the workplace is three to four times higher. We should point out, however, that the latest State invitations to tender suggest ways of adjusting these rates up to FF 75 per hour in some cases.

3.1.59.
In terms of the number of trainees taken on, the training and financial audits show that there were 5 500 000 trainees in 1989.

(B) Training methods

3.1.60.
In France the act of training has for a long time been regarded as a collective concept — as a 'stage' — based on the unity of time and place, and it is still the main form in which training is organized. There have, however, been several developments.

3.1.61.
Especially since the introduction of crédit formation individualisé, the State has tried to promote forms of training that would help to individualize training itineraries. Training agencies are invited to set up modular systems of training so that each trainee can take only those subjects he really needs. Since 1985 ateliers pédagogiques personnalisés (APP) have been set up; the aim of these personalized training workshops is to give young people and adults additional general or technological education or training specially designed for them. In 1990, 391 such workshops catered for 96 000 trainees.

3.1.62.
Because of the mutual suspicion between the educational system and the working world, alternance has never really been a recognized and preferred form of training. Matters might well change in the near future, with the permanent establishment of youth integration measures (2.2.37), the revitalization of apprenticeship (2.2.39) and tutor training measures. Such recognition of the workplace as the place of training will no doubt be one of the major trends in the 1990s.

3.1.63.
As we have already indicated (2.3.72), the development that the authorities looked for in multi-media training has not materialized. This form of training no doubt does not suit the Latin mentality very well, but it should develop over the years to come.

3.1.64.
The Agreement of 3 July 1991 regulating forms of training leading to qualifications and taken outside working hours opens up the path to the development of correspondence training or training pursued at special times.

3.1.65.
The main provision of training in 1992 is still the 'brochure course' (a group course away from the workplace chosen from a brochure based on its curriculum) or various kinds of group courses subsidized by the authorities. It will be one of the challenges of the 1990s to adapt the provision of training and the investment of training agencies in new, more flexible and more personalized methods.

(C) Regulation of the training market

3.1.66.
This is based essentially on the Law of 4 July 1990, the aim of which was to establish a consumer's right to training. This law places an obligation on training agencies to reach contracts with their trainees, setting out the rights and obligations of the parties. It reinforces the powers of vocational training supervisory bodies and regulates advertising.

3.1.67.
In the same way, in 1992 the State is establishing a policy on the accreditation of the training agencies with which it works. It is the authorities' resolve to see the number of training agencies reduced, and the average turnover of those that remain increase. With this in mind, plans for grouping, merger and cooperation are encouraged.

3.1.68.
It should be added that, in the context of the organization of the training market, in 1988 the professional organizations and staff representatives of training agencies signed a national collective agreement for training agencies that lays the foundation for a 'trainers' statute' and regulates the overall position of training staff in the private sector. This agreement also states the number of hours that trainers must spend with trainees and the hours they must devote to preparation, research or other activities.

(D) Recognition of qualifications

3.1.69.
The Labour Code lays down three types of recognition of qualifications: the possession of a title or approved diploma, recognition of the qualification by a collective agreement or the inclusion of this qualification in a list drawn up by the commissions paritaires nationales de l'emploi (3.1.42). This third procedure may be regarded as secondary as of 1992, and we shall discuss here the validation of titles and diplomas and recognition by collective agreement.

(1) The validation of titles and diplomas

3.1.70.
This validation is covered by the Law of 16 July 1971 on technological teaching. The validation is granted by the Prime Minister on the proposal of the Commission technique d'homologation des titres et diplômes. This technical validation board is made up of representatives of the ministries, the social partners and representatives of institutions operating in the field of vocational training.

3.1.71.
The law distinguishes between diplomas issued under the authority of the Ministry of National Education and those issued by other ministries. Diplomas coming under the Ministry of Education are officially validated, whereas diplomas coming under other ministries have to go through a validation procedure. This consists of examining the manner in which training is provided and the results it produces, with the help of a dossier and a consultant's report.

3.1.72.
At present over 2 500 titles and diplomas have been validated, not including Ministry of Education diplomas.

3.1.73.
This proliferation of titles and diplomas has the advantage of making it easier to recognize training courses of special interest in a given sector or for a given target group. Its drawback is that it makes it difficult to find out about these titles and diplomas and for them to be taken into account under a collective agreement.

(2) Recognition of qualifications by collective agreements

3.1.74.
Collective agreements define the qualifications and the duties attached to those qualifications. The possession of a title or diploma is sometimes essential to gain access to the qualification recognized by the collective agreement. Nevertheless, in accordance with the principles of the right to work, the qualification will be issued by the employer and, in the event of a dispute, it will be established in the light of the duties actually performed, rather than the individual's personal qualifications.

3.1.75.
The two systems of recognition, therefore, seem to operate independently of one another, and the problem of the recognition by the employer of qualifications acquired by employees is still open-ended. Employers' representatives have always refused to establish mechanisms or procedures for the automatic recognition of qualifications acquired by employees during a training course. The Agreement of 3 July 1991 is a first step towards this end, since it provides for employers to take account, in certain cases, of a qualification acquired by an employee under the training plan (see 2.3.33).

3.2 The financing of vocational training

3.2.1.
In this section we shall discuss the statistics for the overall spending on education and the economics of vocational training, and then list the expenditure of the leading funders of training: the State, the regions and employers.

Global spending on education and training

3.2.2.
In 1990, education accounted for FF 414 000 million, i. e. 6.4% of the gross domestic product. The breakdown of funders is as follows:

State	FF 275 000 million
Local authorities	73 000 million
Individuals	41 000 million
Employers	25 000 million

3.2.3.
Continuing training accounted for over FF 90 000 million in 1991, 1.5% of the GDP. The breakdown of funders is as follows:

State	FF 43 800 million
Employers	37 500 million
Local authorities	4 800 million
Unedic	2 500 million
Individuals	1 500 million

(*Source:* Finance bill for 1992).

These amounts were used for preliminary integration training (18%), the training of people already in employment (59%), the training of the unemployed (18%) and support measures (5%).

State funding

3.2.4.
State expenditure of FF 43 800 million in 1990 breaks down as follows:

(i) FF 25 100 million for continuing training (including FF 11 900 million for the operation of measures, FF 12 800 million for remuneration of trainees, FF 3 200 million for exemptions from social security contributions on alternance training contracts and 300 million for tax credit);

(ii) FF 16 800 million for training of its own employees;

(iii) FF 1 900 million for apprenticeship.

Funding by regions

3.2.5.
Regions fund the training measures they implement themselves from the decentralization budget they receive from the State (42% of total expenditure) and from their own resources and the funding they obtain from Structural Funds.

3.2.6.
Regional spending rose by 11% between 1989 and 1990, to a level of FF 4 300 million plus 1 700 million on apprenticeship. Out of this total of FF 6 000 million the Île de France accounted for 1 200 million, Rhône-Alpes for 500 million, Nord-Pas de Calais and the Pays de Loire over for 400 millionn. The other regions have budgets of an average of FF 100 to 300 million.

Funding by employers

3.2.7.
Employers with a work-force of at least 10 people must devote 1.4% of their annual wage bill to the funding of vocational training. Out of these 1.4% levies, 0.15% is set aside for individual training leave, 0.30% for alternance training and 0.95% to the employers' training plan. In 1993, this compulsory contribution will be raised to 1.5% (0.2% for CIFs, 0.3% for alternance training and 1% for the training plan).

3.2.8.
In 1990, employers devoted 3.2% of their wage bill to training their employees, an amount of over FF 37 000 million. This average conceals marked disparities from one sector to another and depending on the size of enterprises (those with a work-force of 10 to 50 people devote less than 1.5% to training, whereas enterprises with a work-force of 2 000 exceed 5%).

3.2.9.
With effect from 1992, enterprises employing fewer than 10 people will have to pay 0.15% of their wage bill to a training insurance fund. Heads of enterprise will also have to pay a flat-rate contribution to finance their training. This extension of the field of participation, as well as the growing participation of enterprises having a work-force of more than 10, reflects the need to find additional funding for the training of employees.

3.2.10.
Expenditure by employers breaks down as follows:

(i) the operation of training measures (16% of them internal training, 20% external training)	36%,
(ii) trainees' remuneration	36%,
(iii) payment to Opacifs	5%,
(iv) payment to OMAs	9%,
(v) payment to FAFs	7%,
(vi) others	7%

Ultimate funding of continuing training in 1990

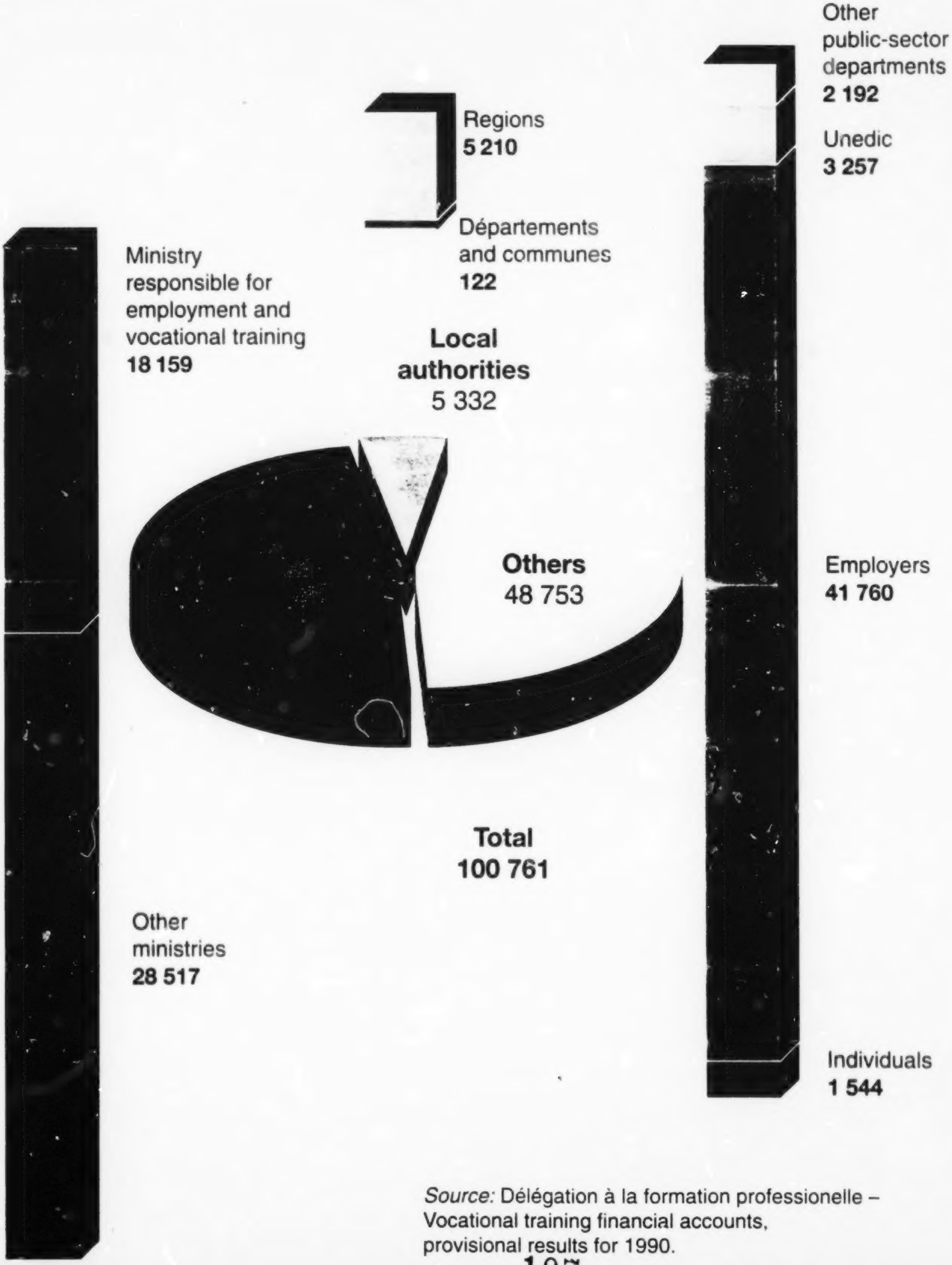
(million FF)

	Integration training	Training for the unemployed	Training of the active population in employment	Associated activities	General Total	%
State (total)	9 207	12 404	22 687	2 378	46 676	46.3
Ministry of Employment and Continuing Training	4 469	11 819	697	1 174	18 159	18.0
Other ministries	4 738	585	21 990	1 204	28 517	28.3
Local authorities (total)	1 716	2 057	1 291	268	5 332	5.3
Regions	1 610	2 057	1 276	267	5 210	5.2
Départements and communes	106	0	15	1	122	0.1
Other public authorities	108	252	1 653	179	2 192	2.2
Unedic	0	3 257	0	0	3 257	3.2
Employers	7 264	62	31 344	2 730	41 760	41.4
Individuals	46	0	1 270	228	1 544	1.5
Total million francs	**18 701**	**18 032**	**58 245**	**5 782**	**100 761**	**100**
%	**18.6**	**17.9**	**57.8**	**5.7**	**100**	

Source: Délégation à la formation professionnelle — vocational training financial accounts, provisional results for 1990.

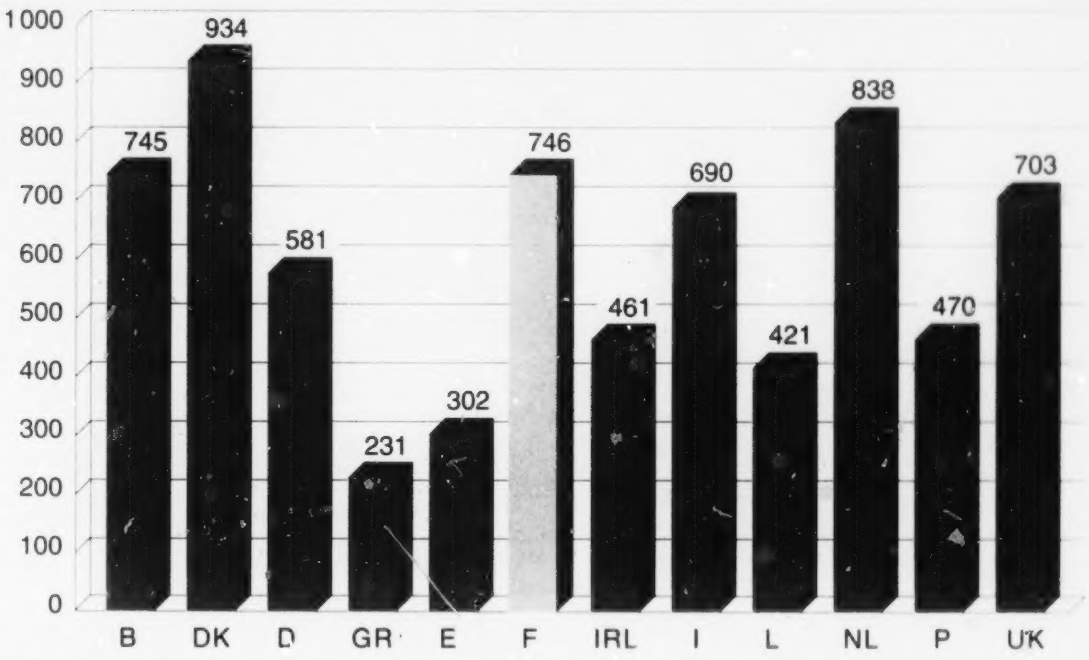
The financing of continuing training and apprenticeship in France (1990)

(million FF)



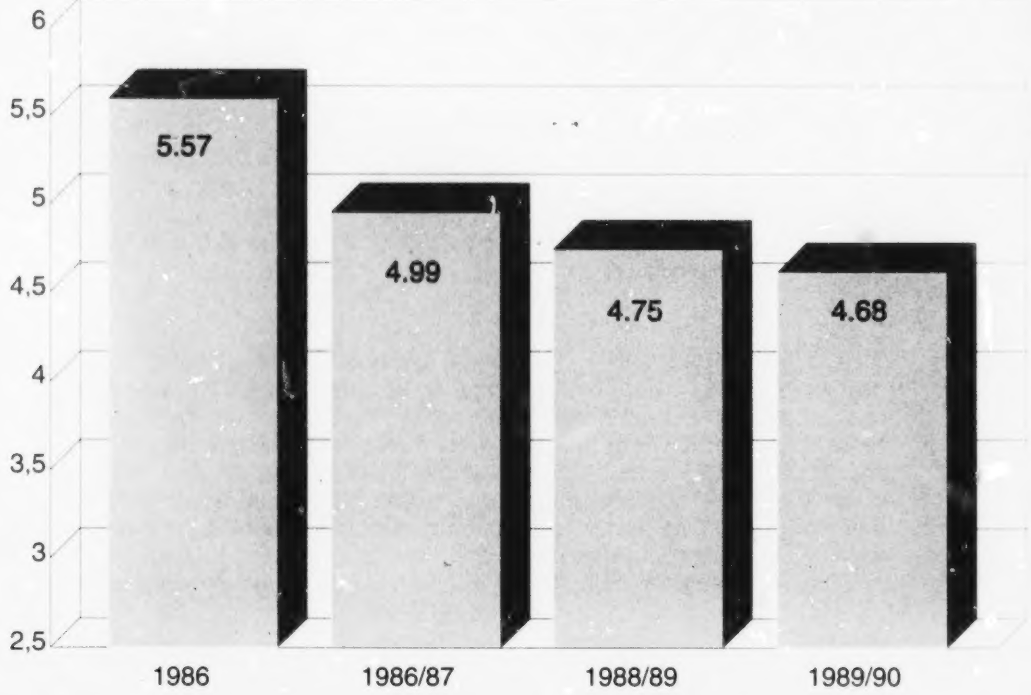
Source: Délégation à la formation professionelle – Vocational training financial accounts, provisional results for 1990.

Public expenditure on education in 1985 (in purchasing power standard — PPS), per head of population



Source: Eurostat – Social Portrait of Europe, 1991.

Public spending on education – France (percentage of GDP)



Source: OECD: *Education in OECD countries*, 1986/87 and 1987/88, *OECD in Figures* (1991, 1992 und 1993 editions).

4

CURRENT AND FUTURE TRENDS

4.1. Development factors

The sharp acceleration in the rate of development of vocational training measures in the early 1990s has been influenced by two sets of factors: internal challenges, which set ambitious objectives for training, and external challenges, with European integration. Although not all the challenges have been met today, we can look at the future and predict major changes in the system of training.

Internal challenges

4.1.1.

Over the past few years the objectives set for vocational training have expanded to an unprecedented degree. The result is that vocational training is no longer a separate field in its own right but to an increasing degree is being integrated with other policies and strategies, both public and private. This places it under pressure to adapt its educational teaching to practical realities, to support the modernization and growth of enterprises and to combat all traces of the exclusion and unemployment that has become a lasting feature of our society.

4.1.2.

The problem of the skill levels of the working population arises clearly in France, where 40% of this population has no vocational diploma (compared with 25% in Germany) and where over 100 000 young people leave the school system every year without a qualification. In this field the challenge is twofold: to bring the educational system closer to the working world, but also, within the educational system, to reinstate the position of technical education, which has suffered from being held in little regard in society compared with general academic education (for example, the announcement of the objective of '80% of every age group reaching baccalauréat level in the year 2000' caused a faster rise of pupils in general education than in the technological and vocational streams of education, contrary to what had been hoped).

4.1.3.

The paradoxical demands in the field of young people's qualifications are the need to impart a sufficiently broad education for them to keep up with developments in jobs and qualifications and to be adaptable, while at the same time giving them the specific training they need if they are to find their place within the world of employment.

4.1.4.

This effort on the part of the initial training system, whose main lines of development we have described, must be accompanied by an even greater effort on the part of the continuing training system. In its demographic structure, France, in common with that of almost every other EC country, has an ageing population and a low birth rate, linked with rapid developments in technology, job content and qualifications, which means that there must be constant access to training. In this field the question is one for both the continuing training system, which must develop routes of access to vocational training, and for employers who have to integrate training into their development more than they do today.

4.1.5.
As pointed out by the committee on social relations and employment as part of the preparations for the Tenth Plan (1989-92), it is still a characteristic of the management of French enterprises that it prefers to resort to forms of quantitative and external flexibility.

This means that it resorts to making people redundant in times of difficulty and recruits manpower on an interim basis (under short-term or temporary contracts) during periods of economic revival. Such practices are a brake on internal flexibility, especially the introduction of policies on the forward management of employment and skills. A policy on a company's training, in particular on training linked with future qualifications, relates only to the stable core of its work-force, the employees who are really an integral part of the enterprise.

The introduction of specific individual training leave for people who have contracts for a specified term, together with their referral to temporary enterprises for the training of temporary workers, clearly demonstrate how the training of these categories of workers is being externalized and is not being taken into account, in other than quantitative ways, in management strategy. The challenge of growing competitiveness among enterprises is also the challenge of establishing human resource management policies that take into account the management of skills and therefore of training.

4.1.6.
Apart from these economic challenges and the challenges of qualifying people in general to meet the needs of the economy and to develop continuing training under the skills management policies of employers, vocational training must respond to the social challenges.

4.1.7.
The first of these challenges is not without its effects on the success of the reforms currently being implemented in initial vocational training. The need is to make our training system more egalitarian by lessening the importance of the initial training diploma in an individual's career. Growing access to continuing training, apart from offering a second chance to people who have left the educational system too hastily, will also help the short streams of job-related studies to perform their role to the full. It will be all the easier to direct some pupils and students towards this type of stream in that they will not forfeit all hopes of future training and career progression, which on the whole is the case today.

4.1.8.
The second social challenge is not individual but collective: it is concerned with the establishment of a policy on employment and training that will prevent the exclusion from the working world of those young people who continue to leave the school system without qualifications, employees who are made redundant without any support measures to help them retrain for other work, the long-term unemployed and marginalized groups such as the illiterate, immigrants and people with special difficulties. The implementation of such a policy is no longer just a matter of the right to work and management practices, even though employers have a role to play in this action, but more of recourse to vocational training under public-sector policies such as policy on cities and regional development, health and integration. The campaign against exclusion from economic and social life must inevitably be conducted by recourse to training.

4.1.9.
At every level of the economy and at all levels of employment, vocational training is a prime issue. Europe's main advantage, perhaps its only advantage, in international competition lies in its population's educational and cultural standards; the prerequisite for its competitiveness confronted with the new industrial countries is to maintain this level by the quality of the training it provides.

The effects of Europe

4.1.10.
The impact of Europe may be exercised in two ways: through training policy conducted at the level of the European Community and through the consequences of opening up frontiers in 1993.

4.1.11.
On the first point, a distinction should be made between the two types of action conducted by the Community. The action of the Structural Funds, whose aim is to help restore the balance among different regions in Europe, may have major financial implications on the macro-economic level, but it does not have a determining influence over developments in the French training system, for at least two reasons: the first is that this is a policy for the support of national policies and it therefore operates in a subsidiary manner; the second lies in the fact that, after the reform of the Structural Funds, Community financing is concentrated on areas eligible for the first objective and that, for France, only the overseas territories and Corsica are part of those regions.

4.1.12.
Regarding the second type of action conducted by the Community, in other words the implementation of European programmes, the effects on the French training system, in particular on the providers of training and employers, are no doubt far more important.

The diversity of these programmes does in fact correspond to the diversity of the French training market and it is hardly surprising that the French bodies are represented in 70% of the associations of universities and employers concerned with training under the Comett programme, for example. France, together with the United Kingdom, is the country that submits the most projects in response to Community invitations to tender.

This enthusiasm for Europe testifies both to the capacity for innovation that exists within training agencies and the resolve to gain a foothold at the European level in the run-up to the opening out of frontiers in 1993.

4.1.13.
On the other hand the action conducted by the Community in the field of social policy does not seem to be having a radical influence on the system of continuing training, which is more highly developed than in most other European countries. The adoption of a directive on recognition of the right of access to training for workers in the form of training leave would not, for example, add to the legal achievements of French employees, since they already enjoy that right.

4.1.14.
The arrival of the single European market will no doubt have two profound influences on the French system. The first will be on enterprises. The single market and the growing competition that it is likely to entail may well accelerate the development of enterprises and therefore the search for new skills, a demand that can be satisfied internally by a policy on the management of skills or externally through recruitment. Apart from the additional skills that vocational

training will have to provide, the opening up of frontiers implies that new forms of training must be integrated into management policy: training in the cultures of other countries in the European community, language training, training in the management techniques of other countries, etc. Training is part of the set of tools that will enable employees to work on a European scale.

4.1.15.
In the second place vocational training will be affected by the opening of frontiers in that it is an economic sector subject to the growth of competition and, inversely, a sector in which French training agencies may well be potential exporters. If there is one field in which French training agencies lag behind their neighbours, particularly English-speaking countries, it is in new educational technologies. British achievements in this field are admirable, whereas the use of multi-media techniques has not developed in France as predicted.

Furthermore, as we have pointed out in the previous chapter, the market for vocational training in France has not really been competitive, but it has been marked by rigid flows of funds (public-sector providers supplying their training to public-sector clients, private-sector providers selling their training to the private sector, for example). The arrival of true competition and the need to act on a European scale will necessarily raise the problem of restructuring this market and lead to regrouping — something, moreover, which finds favour among the French authorities.

4.2 What solutions for tomorrow?

4.2.1.
Faced with all the questions raised for the vocational training system, in the autumn of 1991 several responses were being outlined as regards the level of the role that each of the parties should perform and the measures that could be adopted.

A new strategy for the parties involved

4.2.2.
The signature of the Agreement of 3 July 1991 clearly marked the resolve of the social partners to manage the vocational training system, but also to take part in vocational training policy as a whole, as testified by the first part of the agreement which is on preliminary technological training. This resolve is approved by the authorities. There is even an implicit will to press ahead with individual partners in the announcement by the Minister for Labour of contracts for objectives negotiated between the State, the regional councils, the social partners and branches of the economy at regional level. It seems that the State wants not so much to administer the training system itself, which would call for the involvement of everyone, as to create conditions for the effective implementation of training, for example by developing techniques of 'administrative engineering' and measures for evaluating the system.

4.2.3.
The social partners, then, have found fresh autonomy in the Agreement of 3 July 1991, but it is above all in making alternance training more widespread that they are called upon to invest their efforts.

Alternance as a principle of training

4.2.4.
The demands made of alternance training are to adapt instruction to economic realities, to pave the way for the integration of young people into society and the working world, but also adults, to contribute towards the campaign against unemployment, to provide a remedy for manpower shortages, etc. As we see, alternance is being asked to provide the solution to most of the challenges that we have identified in this report.

4.2.5.
Underlying the term alternance, there are three separate subjects: the reform of national education, recognition of the role of the trainer in the work situation and the need to find the resources and additional routes to cope with the effort to raise the skill levels of the active population.

4.2.6.
We still need to define what the term alternance covers. It may imply a move to the workplace of school pupils or school students or the distinction between theoretical teaching and practical instruction, or again it may be a special apprenticeship teaching methodology which is implemented in two separate places.

4.2.7.
The role of the training enterprise will differ depending on which definition is chosen. One of the conditions for the development of alternance is that employers should be prepared to play this new role. It should be borne in mind that in France apprenticeship occurs mainly in craft trades; large enterprises, especially in industry, are very little involved in the training of young people (see 2.2.88). A number of support measures, such as the training of apprentice masters and tutors responsible for taking on youngsters, or thinking as to the arrangements for taking in and training young people, must therefore be conducted before alternance training is established on a wide scale.

4.2.8.
More generally, the recognition of an enterprise as the place of training could be a way of influencing the organization of work, a major theme for the action of the Ministry of Labour in 1992.

The system's financing needs

4.2.9.
Despite the large volume of expenditure on education and training (see 3.2.2), the financing needs of training are far from satisfied. Bearing in mind that the State funds almost 70% of the total expenditure and that efforts over the past few years have raised that expenditure to such a high level, it seems inevitable that it will have to bottom out (as an example, an exceptional programme to combat long-term unemployment will be funded out of the sale of assets in nationalized enterprises in 1992). Additional funding must therefore be sought not out of the public purse but out of private spending. A point of note is that the proportion contributed towards educational expenditure by employers and parents is lower in France than in the United States, Japan and Germany.

4.2.10.
It is therefore essential that financial engineering systems, which are not very highly developed today, be set up so that private expenditure on training can rise at an adequate rate and they can effectively overtake the growth in public spending, which is likely to rise at a slower rate than in the past few years.

4.2.11.

As regards employers, the Agreement of 3 July 1991 and the Law of 31 December 1991 have increased the rates of contribution of employers to the funding of vocational training and created an obligation for enterprises with fewer than 10 employees to participate. The State has also announced that it would take into account the demands of employers to have their expenditure on training treated as intangible investments.

4.2.12.

Financial participation by individuals could take several forms. On the one hand, the Agreement of 3 July 1991 raises the principle of co-financing, in the form of unpaid work, by employees taking long training courses leading to a qualification. This principle, hotly debated during negotiations, paves the way for taking greater account of training in contracts of employment and the negotiation of incentive mechanisms within the enterprise for those going on training (certain in-company agreements, for example, have replaced length-of-service bonuses by qualification bonuses).

4.2.13.

This principle of employees financing part of their training also creates the problem of gearing the financial solutions to individuals. If an employee effectively participates financially, why should his expenses not be treated on a par with the employer's and be tax-deductible? The principle of the tax deductibility of personal training expenses exists in Germany and is under consideration in the United Kingdom. The French authorities have always been reluctant to embody this principle in law, and do not encourage employers to pass on to employees the responsibility for funding training. But other financial mechanisms may be devised to promote individual initiative and participation: zero-interest or low-interest loans, loans with deferred repayment along the lines of student loans, etc.

4.2.14.

The banking and insurance sector has not really entered the field of training and offers few financial services suited to individuals, enterprises or training agencies, which often have cash flow difficulties, in order to meet the financing need of this sector of the economy. Such a shortcoming might persuade the training insurance funds to claim this role of funder of investment (up to now all they have done is to refund training costs).

Market structure

4.2.15.
As we have pointed out, the training market is characterized by the number and diversity of training agencies. The effect of this characteristic has been a fragmentation of supply and a smaller financial base for most agencies. It will be recalled that 17% of all training agencies have a turnover of more than FF 1 million, and that only 4% have a turnover of over FF 5 million (i. e. about 700 agencies, representing on their own 54% of the market). A minimum threshold of financial and training capability is required to make the technological and human investment that is vital to the conduct of research and development, training engineering, the exporting of skills and products, the adaptation of the provision of training to different target groups or economic sectors, etc.

4.2.16.
As we have pointed out when describing the challenges created by the opening up of the single market in 1993, the restructuring of the vocational training market is a prerequisite if it is to find a foothold on the European level. The principal funders of training, the authorities, intend to play their part in this restructuring, although they are aware that an effort must also be made by the employers and the social partners and by the professionals themselves.

Other prospects

4.2.17.
It is impossible to draw up a list of all the sectors in which vocational training is likely to develop. Nevertheless, having outlined the strategy of the parties concerned, alternance training, financing needs and market restructuring, we could mention three other paths along which the system may develop: support for the development of skills within the workplace, improvements in administrative action and the problems of certification.

4.2.18.
The provision of support for the development of skills within the workplace is a delicate problem for the authorities, in that they do not wish, even if they could, to interfere in the administrative and management policies of enterprises, although they feel that they should be encouraging management practices that integrate training into thinking and broader action which relates to the forward management of employment and skills and the organization of labour. The resolve is to encourage enterprises to move away from a quantitative, external system of management of labour problems to an internal management. Negotiated modernization is a direct incentive to set up such systems, but the future seems to lie less with direct aid than in indirect incentives, in particular by involving the employer more in training. In other words, here again alternance is the hope of the future.

4.2.19.
The problem of administrative action arises in the implementation of social integration policies. To reconcile policies on cities, health, integration, education, regional development, employment and training with common objectives and structures that work together would seems to be an impossible task. This is, however, the challenge that the State has to take up, by acting with groups that have the responsibility for each of these policies but cannot provide a satisfactory solution on their own.

The development of specific techniques of administrative law and the setting-up of special administrative engineering are prerequisites for the campaign against exclusion. The new thinking on the integration of young people in society and the working world, the social development of local neighbourhoods, the introduction of a minimum integration income still need to be reviewed in detail if the intention is that, side by side with a high level vocational training that will lead to better career prospects for individuals and the development enterprises, training should be provided that is geared to groups with special difficulties.

4.2.20.
Finally, another issue which should be a major challenge in the years to come is the recognition of qualifications. The French system suffers from the gap between the system of recognition of titles and the fact that diplomas and contractual qualifications are too narrow. Management/union bodies, whether they are commissions paritaires consultatives, commissions nationales paritaires pour l'emploi or commissions paritaires interprofessionnelles régionales, will have a role to play which will undoubtedly be more important than now. Legal mechanisms should be devised that help to rethink the liaison between personal qualifications and vocational qualifications, involving social partners more closely in the recognition of titles and diplomas and laying down procedures whereby collective agreements can follow developments in recognized qualifications. The seeds of this complex reform are to be seen in the Agreement of 3 July 1991, but it needs to be reconsidered in the light of the policies on the recognition of qualifications that have been conducted at European levels since 1988. The work done by CEDEFOP has pinpointed the difficulties that a general system of recognition of qualifications would encounter. It is, however, vital to succeed so that all forms of mobility, whether geographical, educational or career, are possible.

ANNEXES

Annex 1: Abbreviations

		Paragraph
AFPA	Association pour la formation professionnelle des adultes Association for the vocational training of adults	3.1.15
AFR	Allocation de formation-reclassement Training-retraining allowance	2.3.52
Agefal	Association pour la gestion des fonds de l'alternance Association for the management of alternance training funds	2.2.71
ANFH	Association nationale pour la formation hospitalière National Association for hospital training	2.3.45
ANPE	Agence nationale pour l'emploi National Agency for employment	3.1.14
APEC	Association pour l'emploi des cadres Association for executive and manager employment	2.3.76
APP	Atelier pédagogique personnalisé Personalized training workshop	3.1.61
ASFO	Association de formation Training association	2.2.69
AUEF	Association université-entreprise pour la formation University-employers association for training	4.1.12
Bac Pro	Baccalauréat professionnel Vocational baccalaureate	2.2.9
BEP	Brevet d'études professionelles Diploma of occupational studies	2.2.7
BEPA	Brevet d'études professionnelles agricoles Diploma in vocational agricultural studies	2.2.30
BTA	Brevet de technicien agricole Agricultural technician's diploma	2.2.30
BTAO	Brevet de technicien agricole à options Agricultural technician's diploma with options	2.2.30
BTn	Baccalauréat technologique (Baccalauréat de technicien) Technological baccalaureate	2.2.13
BTS	Brevet de technicien supérieur Advanced technician's diploma	2.2.16
CA	Contrat d'adaptation Adaptation contract	2.2.59
CAP	Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle Certificate of vocational aptitude	2.2.7
CAPA	Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle agricole Certificate of vocational agricultural aptitude	2.2.30
CEP	Certificat d'éducation professionnelle Certificate of vocational training	2.2.2
CEREQ	Centre d'études et de recherche sur l'emploi et les qualifications Centre for studies and research on qualifications	3.1.9
CES	Contrat emploi-solidarité Employment-solidarity contract	2.2.81

		Paragraph
CFA	Centre de formation des apprentis Apprentice training centre	2.2.41
CFDT	Confédération française du travail French confederation of workers	3.1.44
CFI	Crédit formation individualisé Personalized training entitlement	2.2.73
CFTC	Confédération française des travailleurs chrétiens French confederation of Christian workers	3.1.44
CGC	Confédération générale des cadres General confederation of executives and managers	3.1.44
CGPME	Confédération générale des petites et moyennes entreprises General confederation of small and medium-sized enterprises	3.1.44
CGT	Confédération générale du travail General confederation of labour	3.1.44
CIBC	Centre interinstitutionnel de bilan de compétences Interinstitutional skills audit centre	2.3.77
CIDF	Centre d'information sur le droit des femmes Women's rights information centre	2.3.79
CIDJ	Centre d'information et de documentation pour la jeunesse Information and documentation centre for young people	2.2.108
CIF	Congé individuel de formation Individual training leave	2.3.6
CIO	Centre d'information et d'orientation Information and guidance centre	2.2.98
CLO	Contrat local d'orientation Local guidance contract	2.2.79
CNAM	Conservatoire national des arts et métiers National conservatory of arts and crafts	2.3.70
CNED	Centre nationale d'enseignement à distance National centre for distance training	2.3.71
CNFPT	Centre national pour la formation dans la fonction publique territoriale National centre for local authority employees	2.3.41
CNPF	Confédération nationale du patronat français National joint management/union committee for vocational training	3.1.44
CO	Contrat d'orientation Guidance contract	2.2.52
Copafic	Comité paritaire pour les questions liées au conge individuel de formation Joint committee on individual training leave	2.3.15
Copire	Commission paritaire interprofessionnelle régionale pour l'emploi Joint regional interindustry employment boards	3.1.43
COREF	Comité régional pour l'emploi et la formation Regional committee on employment and training	3.1.39
CPA	Classe préparatoire à l'apprentissage Pre-apprenticeship class (diagram)	2.2.2
CPC	Commission professionnelle consultative Joint advisory board	3.1.33
CPNE	Commission paritaire nationale de l'emploi Joint national employment boards	3.1.42
CPNFP	Comité paritaire national pour la formation professionnelle National joint management/union committee for vocational training	3.1.44

		Paragraph
CPPN	Classe préprofessionnelle de niveau Pre-vocational remedial course (diagram)	2.2.2
CPR/CPTR	Centre psychotechnique régional Regional psychotechnic centres	3.1.15
CQ	Contrat de qualification Qualification contract	2.2.55
CRIJ	Centre régional d'information de la jeunesse Regional information centre for young people	2.2.108
DAFCO	Délégation académique à la formation continue Academic delegation for continuing training	3.1.23
DDA	Délégation départementale de l'agence nationale pour l'emploi National employment agency département delegation	3.121
DDTEFP	Direction départementale du travail, de l'emploi et de la formation professionnelle Département directorates of labour, employment and vocational training	3.1.21
DE	Délégation à l'emploi Delegation for employment	3.1.11
DEUG	Diplôme d'études universitaires générales Diploma of general university studies (diagram)	2.2.20
DEUST	Diplôme d'études universitaires scientifiques et techniques Diploma of scientific and technical university studies	2.2.21
DFP	Délégation à la formation professionnelle Delegation for vocational training	3.1.10
DIJ	Délégation à l'insertion des jeunes Delegation for the integration of young people	3.1.17
DIJEN	Dispositif d'insertion des jeunes de l'éducation nationale Ministry of Education scheme for the integration of young people	2.2.100
DRFP	Délégation régionale à la formation professionnelle Regional delegation for vocational training	3.1.19
DUT	Diplôme universitaire de technologie University diploma of technology	2.2.17
FACT	Fonds pour l'amélioration des conditions de travail Fund for the improvement of working conditions	2.3.55
FAF	Fonds d'assurance formation Training insurance fund	2.1.17
FEN	Fédération de l'éducation nationale Federation of national education unions	3.1.4
FNE	Fonds national pour l'emploi National employment fund	2.1.11
FO	Force ouvrière (il s'agit du nom usuel, l'appellation exacte étant CGT-FO) Force ouvrière (name by which CGT-FO is customarily known)	3.1.44
Fongefic	Fonds pour la gestion du congé individuel de formation Regional joint management/union bodies administering individual training leave in the interindustry sector	2.3.12
FPPSE	Formation professionnelle promotion sociale et emploi Vocational, social advancement and employment training	3.1.34

		Paragraph
GNC	Groupe national de contrôle de la formation professionnelle National group for the monitoring of vocational training	3.1.10
GRETA	Groupement d'établissements de l'éducation nationale pour la formation professionnelle continue Groups of secondary education establishments	3.1.23
INSEE	Institut national des statistiques et des études économiques National institute for statistics and economic research	1.2.2
IPST	Institut de la promotion supérieure du travail Institute for the higher advancement of employment	2.1.10
IUP	Insitut universitaire professionnalisé Vocational university institute	2.2.22
IUT	Institut universitaire de technologie University institute of technology	2.2.17
LP	Lycée professionnel Vocational lycée	2.2.6
MIAGE	Maîtrise d'informatique appliquée à la gestion Higher diploma in information technology applied to management	2.2.21
MIF	Maison de l'information sur la formation Training information centre	2.3.80
MSG	Maîtrise en sciences de gestion Higher diploma in management science	2.2.21
MST	Maîtrise en sciences et techniques Higher diploma in science and technology	2.2.21
OMA	Organisme mutualisateur agréé Accredited mutual funding agency	2.2.67
Onisep	Office national d'information sur les emplois et les professions National board for the provision of information on jobs and careers	2.2.98
PAIO	Permanence d'accueil, d'information et d'orientation Reception, information and guidance centre	2.2.104
PAQUE	Programme d'accès à la qualification et à l'emploi Programme of access to skills and employment	2.2.94
SIVP	Stage d'initiation à la vie professionnelle Work experience placement	2.2.90
SMIC	Salaire minimum interprofessionnel de croissance Interindustry minimum wage	2.2.42
SPE	Service public de l'emploi Public employment department	3.1.26
STS	Section de technicien supérieur Advanced technician section (diagram)	2.2.20
TUC	Travaux d'utilité collective Community service projects	2.2.35
Unedic	Union nationale pour l'emploi dans l'industrie et le commerce National union for employment in industry and commerce	2.3.52
UPA	Union professionnelle artisanale Vocational craft industries union	3.1.44

Annex 2: Useful addresses

1. PUBLIC SECTOR

(a) Ministerial departments

Ministère du travail, de l'emploi et de la formation professionnelle
1, place de Fontenoy
F-75340 Paris 07SP
Tel. (331) 40 56 60 00 Fax (331) 40 56 67 60

Délégation à l'emploi
55, rue Prosquet
F-75700 Paris
Tel. (331) 40 56 60 00 Fax (331) 40 56 62 31

Délégation à la formation professionnelle
Immeuble Mercure 1
31, quai de Grenelle
F-75015 Paris
Tel. (331) 45 78 45 78 Fax (331) 45 78 45 00

Délégation interministérielle à l'insertion professionnelle et sociale des jeunes en difficulté
DIJ (Délégation insertion des jeunes)
71, rue Saint-Dominique
F-75700 Paris
Tel. (331) 45 55 92 48 Fax (331) 45 50 44 95

Mission Nouvelles Qualifications
9 rue Georges Pitard
F-75015 Paris
Tel. (331) 48 42 66 00 Fax (331) 48 42 66 24

Ministère de l'éducation nationale
110, rue de Grenelle
F-75007 Paris
Tel. (331) 45 55 10 10

(b) Other public-sector bodies

AFPA (Association nationale pour la formation professionnelle des adultes)
13, place du Général de Gaulle
F-93108 Montreuil Cédex
Tel. (331) 48 70 50 00 Fax (331) 48 58 34 32

ANPE (Agence nationale pour l'emploi)
4, rue Galilée
F-93198 Noisy-le-Grand Cedex
Tel. (331) 49 31 74 00 Fax (331) 43 05 67 86

Centre INFFO (Centre pour le développement de l'information sur la formation permanente)
Tour Europe
F-92049 Paris la Défense Cedex 07
Tel. (331) 41 25 22 22 Fax (331) 47 73 74 20
Minitel 3615 Code: INFFO 3616 Code: FORPRO

CEREQ (Centre d'études et de recherches sur les qualifications)
10, place de la Joliette BP 176
F-13474 Marseille Cedex 2
Tel. (33) 91 13 28 28 Fax (33) 91 13 28 80

CIDJ (Centre d'information et de documentation jeunesse)
101, quai de Branly
F-75015 Paris
Tel. (331) 44 49 12 00 Fax (331) 40 65 02 61
Minitel 3615 Code: CIDJ

CNAM (Conservatoire national des arts et métiers)
292, rue Saint-Martin
F-75003 Paris
Tel. (331) 40 27 20 00 Fax (331) 42 71 93 29

ONISEP (Office national d'information sur les enseignements et les professions)
50, rue Albert
F-75635 Paris Cedex 13
Tel. (331) 40 77 60 00 Fax (331) 45 86 60 85
Minitel 3615 Code: ONISEP

2. THE SOCIAL PARTNERS

(a) Employers' organizations

CGPME (Confédération générale des petites et moyennes entreprises)
10, terrasse Bellini
F-92806 Puteaux Cedex
Tel. (331) 47 62 73 73 Fax (331) 47 73 08 86

CNPF (Conseil national du patronat français)
31, avenue Pierre-1er-de-Serbie
F-75780 Paris Cedex 16
Tel. (331) 40 69 44 44 Fax (331) 47 23 47 32

(b) Trade union bodies

CFDT (Confédération française démocratique du travail)
4, boulevard de la Villette
F-75019 Paris
Tel. (331) 42 03 80 00 Fax (331) 42 03 81 44
Fax (331) 42 03 81 45

CFTC (Confédération française des travailleurs chrétiens)
13, rue des Ecluses-Saint-Martin
F-75483 Paris Cedex 10
Tel. (331) 44 52 49 00 Fax (331) 44 52 49 18

CGT (Confédération générale du travail)
263, rue de Paris
F-93516 Montreuil Cedex
Tel. (33) 48 18 80 00 Fax (33) 49 88 18 57

CGT-FO (Confédération générale du travail — Force ouvrière)
198, avenue du Maine
F-75014 Paris
Tel. (331) 45 39 22 03 Fax (331) 45 45 54 52

3. CHAMBERS OF TRADE

ACFCI (Assemblée des chambres françaises de commerce et d'industrie)
45, avenue d'Iéna BP 448.16
F-75769 Paris Cedex 16
Tel. (331) 40 69 37 00 Fax (331) 47 20 61 28

APCM (Assemblée permanente des chambres de métiers)
12, avenue Marceau
F-75008 Paris
Tel. (331) 44 43 10 00 Fax (331) 47 20 34 48

Annex 3: Glossary

The following short list of terms and explanations as to the way they are used in this monograph has been drawn up by the author. It makes no claim to be an authoritative terminological work. In this context the reader is referred to CEDEFOP's current work on terminology and vocational training. Any persons interested in the work should contact Mrs Linshöft-Stiller at CEDEFOP.

Agrément — Validation
Decision by the authorities that people taking a training course are entitled to remuneration. This means that a validated training course is training that entitles those who take it to remuneration.

Bilan de compétences — Skills audit
A scheme the purpose of which is to define an individual's personal and job skills, as well as his aptitudes and motivation.

Branche professionnelle — Branch of occupation
Sector of the economy.

Collectivité territoriale — Local authority
This is also known by the term 'collectivité locale'; it is a public body responsible for the running of an administrative area. They include communes, which are administered by a municipal council, départements, which are administered by a conseil général (general council) and regions, administered by a regional council.

Comité d'entreprise — Works committee
A body that represents the collective interests of employees. The works committee consists of members elected by the staff, union representatives and the employer. The law requires a works committee to be set up in all enterprises with a work-force of at least 50 people.

Convention collective — Collective convention
A convention signed by organizations representing employers and employees. If it refers to just one specific point, it is called an 'accord collectif', or collective agreement. If its implementation is not immediate and compulsory, it is known as an 'accord-cadre' (outline agreement).

Conventionnement — Funding under a convention
Financing by the authorities of the running of a training measure. This funding is covered by a convention.

Demandeur d'emploi de longue durée — Long-term job-seeker
A job-seeker who has been registered with the Agence nationale pour l'emploi for over 12 months. The abbreviations more commonly used are DELD or CLD (chômeur de longue durée).

Formation initiale — Initial training
Training provided before the person embarks upon working life.

Formation professionnelle continue — Continuing training
The training of people who have already embarked upon their working lives.

Homologation — Homologation
Official national recognition of the level of a training course.

INSEE
Institut national de statistiques et des études économiques — the French national institute of statistics and economic studies. Provides most of the statistics on the country's economic activity and population.

Interprofessionnel — Interindustry
An adjective referring to several occupations belonging to separate sectors of activity or occupational branches. Trade union confederations or confederations of employers' associations are known as 'interprofessionnelles' or interindustry.

Paritaire — Joint management/union
Refers to a body on which there is an equal number of representatives of unions and employers' associations. Fonds d'assurance formation (training insurance funds), for example, have a joint board of directors. The noun, 'paritarisme', refers to the general principle of co-management of training insurance funds.

Partenaires sociaux — Social partners
The representatives of unions and employers' associations are known as social partners.

PME/PMI — SME/SMI
Small and medium-sized enterprises or industrial concerns. Enterprises with a regular work-force of up to 500 are regarded as PMEs.

SMIC
Salaire minimum interprofessionnel de croissance — Minimum interindustry wage level. The authorities lay down a minimum hourly wage to which every wage earner is entitled. In April 1992, this was FF 33.31

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revue du Ministère du Travail, de l'Emploi et de la Formation Professionnelle, monthly, available from the Ministry of Labour.

Etudes et Expérimentations,
revue de la Délégation à la Formation Professionnelle, bi-monthly, available from La documentation française.

Annex 5: Main laws, regulations and agreements on vocational training

I. Legislation

The provisions of the various laws on training that are still in force today make up Book IX of the Code du travail (Labour Code) as it pertains to vocational training within the context of adult education.

Law 71—757, 16 July 1971
This law sets out principles which are still at the heart of training law today (including the duty placed on employers to contribute towards the funding of the training). It is regarded as the foundation of the current French training system.

Law 78—754, 17 July 1978
This law establishes a distinction between training undertaken on the employee's own initiative (congé individuel de formation — individual training leave) and training where the initiative comes from the employer (plan de formation — training plan).

Ordinance, 24 March 1982
This establishes a scheme for providing preliminary contact, information and guidance to young people aged 16 to 18; since its issue, it has been extended to young people aged 16 to 25.

Law 83—635, 7 January 1983
This law defines the breakdown of responsibilities for vocational training between the State and the regions.

Law 84—130, 24 January 1984
This reforms the whole vocational training system along the lines mapped out in 1971 by setting up a system for the funding of individual leave and by developing negotiations on training at the level of occupational branches and companies. It also covers the forms of alternance training created by the social partners in 1983.

Law 90—579, 4 July 1990
This law establishes the right to a qualification for all workers in the form of crédit formation (training entitlement). It reinforces the obligations incumbent on training agencies and their supervision.

Law 91—1405, 31 December 1991
This law embodies the main provisions of the agreement reached by the social partners in July 1991 (greater participation on the part of employers, extension of the arrangement to enterprises employing fewer than 10 people, reform of alternance training, etc.)

II. National interindustry agreements

The founding agreement is the national interindustry agreement of 4 July 1970. All subsequent texts were adopted in the form of codicils to this first agreement, up to the national interindustry agreement of 3 July 1991, which revised all the negotiated agreements and consolidated them in a single text.

Agreement of 9 July 1970
The first text to introduce the right to training in labour law, this agreement set up the Congé individuel de formation (individual training leave).

Codicil of 9 July 1976 strengthened the role of the works committee as regards training.

Codicil of 21 September 1982
Organized a system for the funding of the congé individuel de formation (individual training leave) outside the workplace.

Codicil of 26 October 1983
Created various forms of alternance training (SIVP, contrat d'adaptation, contrat de qualification).

Agreement of 20 October 1986
Organized retraining measures for redundant employees.

Agreement of 3 July 1991
Incorporates all the negotiated agreements on vocational training. It covers individual leave, the financing of training, employer/union management of amounts paid out by employers and individual and collective rights of wage-earners to training, in many cases altering the financial aspects of preceding agreements.

All the laws, regulations and agreements applicable in 1992 are compiled in a Centre INFFO publication entitled *Les textes de la formation professionnelle continue*, Paris, 1992, 360 pp., (ISBN 2-908940-38-8).

CEDEFOP — European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Vocational education and training in France

Jean-Pierre Willems
Centre INFFO

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities

1994 — 124 pp. — 21,0 x 29,7 cm

ISBN 92-826-6926-2

Price (excluding VAT) in Luxembourg: ECU 14

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